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RURAL SCHOOL MANAGEMENT

RURAL EDUCATION SERIES

GENERAL EDITOR, MABEL CARNEY

RURAL EDUCATION BRIM

RURAL SCHOOL MANAGEMENT . . . BARNES

Other books in preparation

RURAL SCHOOL MANAGEMENT

BY

INA G. BARNES, M.A.

RURAL SCHOOL SUPERVISOR, LA GRANGE
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TO MY FAMILY

AND TO THAT LARGER FAMILY OF MINE—
THE YOUNG PEOPLE WHO ARE TEACHING
IN THE COUNTRY SCHOOLS OF AMERICA

EDITOR'S INTRODUCTION

THE time has come for a specialization of books in rural education. Heretofore practically every volume in this field has dealt with a great variety of subjects ranging from rural school administration and federal aid to how to make a hectograph or paint the front fence. This range was, of course, necessary and desirable in the beginning, before rural education was sufficiently developed for specialization, and when even rural school writers had to be jacks-of-all-trades. But with the recent growth of country schools and the attention accorded them to-day, the situation has changed, and it is now time for books dealing specifically with restricted phases of the larger problem of rural school improvement as a whole.

First in such a series of special contributions for the use of the teacher should come a text in rural school management. The distinctive problems of rural teaching are due chiefly to the many grades and consequent difficulties of rural school organization. Rural school management is also offered more widely than any other study as a special subject for the preparation of rural teachers in normal schools and training classes. For these reasons and others a writer desiring to assist young rural teachers immediately and directly can best accomplish his purpose through a text on school management.

Service of this type has long been the guiding motive of Miss Ina G. Barnes, whose book in this field is now presented. As a rural school teacher, a rural supervisor, and a rural normal instructor in both high schools and teachers' colleges Miss Barnes brings a rich experience to this problem and has made a contribution of exceptional merit and worth. She has in particular:

1. Delimited and defined the field of rural school management more distinctly and accurately than any other writer has yet done.
2. Held throughout to an underlying psychology and philosophy of education which are modern, scientific, and sound.
3. Kept the viewpoint and needs of young rural teachers and normal school students clearly in mind, and presented her subject in simple and practical terms well suited to this youthful audience.

Other characteristics and features which make the book especially valuable as a text are its clearness and conciseness; its concreteness and definiteness; its well-selected exercises and references, which have already been repeatedly tested through class use; and above all its inspirational tone, calling for the best possible effort from those now working in rural schools and challenging others outside to enter their service.

The volume will have wide use, it is hoped, both as a text for regular courses in normal schools and training classes, and as a guide for study centers and reading circles.

MABEL CARNEY.

PREFACE AND ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

THE notes and outlines which formed the basis for this book were the outgrowth of five years' experience in training rural teachers in West Virginia. During this time, whether the work was with high school seniors preparing to teach in rural schools, or with experienced rural teachers of limited academic preparation, the same difficulty impeded progress. Most of the older textbooks whose wording could be understood, presented out-worn educational ideas; while some of the more modern books were so technical in their phraseology as to need constant interpretation.

This material, modified later by the author's experience as a rural school supervisor in the state of Delaware, is intended primarily for use as a textbook in county training schools, normal training classes of high schools, and short courses for rural teachers in normal schools or summer sessions. It is hoped, however, that isolated rural teachers who have no opportunity to attend such schools may also profit by the individual reading and study of its pages.

Sincere thanks and acknowledgment of indebtedness for aid, advice, and encouragement are hereby tendered to the following people: to my brother, Walter Barnes, head of the English department of the State Normal School at Fairmont, West Virginia; to other members of my family who have assisted me; to various normal

x PREFACE AND ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

school seniors for aid in the compilation of material; to Dr. J. N. Deahl and Dr. L. B. Hill, of the department of education in West Virginia University; to Miss Elizabeth Jenkins, Rural School Supervisor, Kent County, Delaware; and to other co-workers in Delaware who have helped me in various ways.

INA G. BARNES.

La Grange, Indiana
August, 1923

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Rural School Management

CHAPTER I

THE FIELD OF RURAL SCHOOL MANAGEMENT

Introduction: The school contrasted with the factory

OBJECTIVES IN EDUCATION

Practical knowledge and skill

Useful habits

Worth-while habits neglected in rural schools

Desirable feelings and attitudes

Valuable attitudes neglected in rural schools

Definition of school management

Summary

The School Contrasted with the Factory. — Scientific management of a factory or industry is that kind of control which results in the largest returns with the least cost, friction, and waste. This sort of management finds some application in our schools, especially in city schools having fixed rules and methods for everything, and boasting that their school system runs like clockwork. The pupils are the raw material, and efficient citizens, equipped with practical knowledge and skill, useful habits, and desirable feelings, are the finished product. Systematic reduction of cost and avoidance of friction and waste increase the efficiency of the school. Beyond this point, however, a factory system, though convenient for the administrator, should not be followed in the

schools, for it is deadening to the pupils and to the individual teachers.

One wide difference between school and factory is that the uniformity or sameness of material, process, and product, so characteristic of the factory, is almost wholly lacking in the school. The pupils differ in age, previous experience, natural ability, and taste. It is also desirable that they should differ in their knowledge, skill, and capacity when they finish school, because the state needs citizens fitted for many varied labors. This variety of material and product naturally demands greater variety of process or method. In addition to this essential difference, the social and spiritual aims, so important in the school room, are largely wanting in the factory.

Rural schools, however, have not been hampered by too much system. Perhaps this is because the country teacher is associated with farmers, and thus comes to realize that the work of the teacher is more like that of the farmer than that of the manufacturer. Both the farmer and the teacher direct the growth of living beings instead of merely changing the form of lifeless materials. The rural teacher, as a rule, could work more effectively by becoming more systematic, but in so doing she should not lose sight of the needs of the pupils as individuals.

OBJECTIVES IN EDUCATION

Certain broad principles should be kept in mind, if teaching is to result in the practical knowledge and skill, useful habits, and desirable feelings, which have been accepted here as the objectives of education.

Practical Knowledge and Skill. — Real education must be based upon experience. Real teaching must "proceed from the known to the related unknown." Country life abounds in educational material offering starting points, and this should be used to the fullest extent in the rural schools. Knowledge must be based upon experience, and practical knowledge comes from experiences that are useful, educative, or illuminating — experiences that change character and life. All country children should gain a general knowledge of the principles of agriculture, home economics, farm mechanics, and farm and household accounts. They should be familiar with the essential facts and processes involved in poultry raising, truck farming, dairying, stock raising, or any specialized form of farming that is characteristic of their neighborhood. Their knowledge of the local environment is basic to further education. All pupils should have such knowledge and habits of community, household, and personal sanitation as will result in the most healthful rural conditions possible. Furthermore, they need such knowledge of literature, history, and geography as will fit them for citizenship in the modern world. All pupils should be skillful in getting the thought from the printed page, skillful in simple mathematical operations, and skillful in expressing their thoughts in good English. This skill can be gained only by the right sort of practice, which should include speed as well as accuracy.

In one of the well-known books on rural education the author gives an account of a country school in which the course of study had been redirected to make it fit rural life conditions. She says: "To prevent community

antagonism, the teacher began with the conventional branches of the curriculum, first carefully culling the traditional dead matter from each subject and attempting to impart a *country school twist* to what remained.”¹ This “country school twist” seems to be the core of the matter. Pupils should have a knowledge of their environment. They should study home geography, local history, current events, arithmetic problems based upon farm life, and literature that breathes of nature. They should write compositions upon familiar subjects, and letters that are actually to be sent. In short, each subject should begin with farm-life experiences and should progress through related fields of experience. Country children should know the trees, ferns, mosses, birds, insects, flowers, and farms in their neighborhood just as accurately as city children know the public buildings, parks, and industries located near them.

Useful Habits. — Country children are robbed of their heritage unless rural schools add useful habits to practical knowledge. That rural life and education have fostered useful habits in the past is fully attested by the characteristic virtues of country people. Some of the very handicaps of the rural school result in useful habits. For example, the crowded program gives the teacher little chance to assist the pupils, and thus they form the habit of depending upon themselves. This independence of thought and action is a useful habit. Other tendencies of value are habits of initiative, the attitude of valuing realities more than appearances, and the habits of industry and perseverance. It must be admitted,

¹ Carney, Mabel, *Country Life and the Country School*. Row, Peterson & Co., Chicago, p. 240.



RURAL TRAINING SCHOOL OF THE NORMAL SCHOOL AT TEMPE, ARIZONA
Miss Louise B. Lynd, the teacher in charge of this school, holds a Master's degree in rural
education and receives a salary of \$3000 a year.

however, that many of these commendable traits are more the result of the farm environment and the rural home than of the rural school or its teaching.

Worth-while Habits Neglected in Rural Schools. — Indeed, there are some exceedingly useful habits for which our rural schools at present offer little or no training. One valuable habit generally neglected is that of conventional *good manners*. Many a man or woman has been seriously hindered for want of training in manners. Professor Frank McMurry tells of a man who was scholarly and well fitted to hold a lucrative position as a teacher. There was a vacancy in a fashionable college for girls. Upon being summoned to meet the woman principal, the applicant seated himself before she sat down, and, at the close of the interview, passed out the door ahead of her. Not all his scholarship or later training availed to secure the position because he had not the manners which well-trained people use. Many similar instances could be cited to prove that at least the rudiments of good manners should be a part of the training afforded to country boys and girls.

Another serious lack is in the matter of *personal hygiene*. It should be the habit of every country child to attend to the details of personal sanitation, including frequent bathing, use of the toothbrush, regularity in the elimination of body wastes, sleeping in a well ventilated room, standing properly, and moving with ease and grace. The schools can do much toward correcting an improper carriage and forming habits of erect and graceful movement. This is a matter which concerns social efficiency as well as health. Many a country

child has been hampered, when grown, by logy movements and a "clod-hopper" walk.

Other useful habits too frequently neglected in the rural school are the *correct use of English* in speaking and writing, the habit of observing closely whatever is beautiful or unusual, and the habit of reading for pleasure and profit. There is too much time devoted to technical grammar and far too little to drill in correct usage of English. We need to have more stories told and dramatized, more language games used during stormy recess periods, more letters written to pupils of distant schools, and more literary societies organized where pupils can get practice in debating and extemporaneous speaking.

Country children should form the habit of *appreciating the beauty of nature*. Many pupils finish their schooling in the country with eyes unopened to the marvels all about them. Many bright rural pupils cannot distinguish the calls of six common birds. Few know the names of butterflies or moths. Surrounded by the beauties and wonders of nature, their "eyes are holden" because they have never been trained to observe these things.

Farm boys and girls need also to form the *reading habit*. Some rural schools have no libraries, and many have practically no books that can be read by primary pupils. The habits of reading for pleasure and profit should be well established before children complete the fourth grade. Few people acquire the reading habit unless reading material suitable to their age and advancement has been furnished them in abundance during childhood. Consequently, many country children never form the reading habit.

Desirable Feelings and Attitudes. — In addition to imparting practical knowledge and skill, and training in useful habits, the rural school should foster desirable feelings and attitudes. One attitude common to farm people of the present generation is their respect and veneration for knowledge and achievement. The preacher and the teacher have been honored guests in every country home. Perhaps one reason why five-sixths of the ministers and six-sevenths of the college professors of the entire nation have come from the country is to be found in this feeling of respect for these professions. The close contact between the country teacher and her pupils, between the rural preacher and his church, has been one mighty factor in the success of the rural youth. One reason for this respect for education is probably found in the fact that rural isolation throws each person upon his own resources. In such circumstances the value of a well-stored mind becomes apparent. This respect for learning and achievement should be encouraged in the rural youth of to-day.

Among the attitudes to be fostered in the rural schools are: that form of patriotism which characterizes the public-spirited progressive citizen; that form of chivalry which protects the weak; that consideration for others which is the basis of coöperation; that enjoyment of pure pleasure which is the essence of recreation; that desire to serve humanity imparted by the Great Teacher; and that appreciation of beauty in nature essential to the fullest enjoyment of a rural environment.

Attitudes Neglected in Rural Schools. — Three attitudes greatly neglected in rural schools at present are

the spirit of coöperation, the proper evaluation of recreation, and an adequate appreciation of beauty. While independence of thought is to be admired, rural isolation has developed too great independence of action and attitude. Modern civilization is highly specialized and depends upon coöperation. The rural school should definitely foster a helpful social attitude. Teamwork upon the playground, instruction in manners, coöperation in school work, and the general school spirit should foster that consideration of others which is the basis of coöperation.

Rural schools should also make a definite effort to foster a more liberal view of recreation. There is a tendency among farm people to become too engrossed with material things. Most grown people in the country think that play of any sort (except for very small children) is rather foolish, if not actually sinful. The educative value of play for young and old should be carefully taught, and the play spirit instilled into the life of the school and community. No attitude is more needed in the average rural neighborhood than a more liberal regard for recreation.

The appreciation of beauty is another feeling that is badly neglected. The children of our rural schools need more guided observation of the beauties of nature, more study of great pictures, and more opportunity to hear good music. The time will come in the near future when a phonograph will be considered an essential part of the equipment for every rural school. Then the beauty of good music can be made available to every country child. But meanwhile, there is a world of beauty in nature, in literature, and in pic-

tures, which can be readily revealed through good rural teaching.

Definition of School Management. — Having thus attempted to outline briefly what is meant by practical knowledge and skill, useful habits, and desirable attitudes we are ready for a complete definition of school management. *School management is that directing of the everyday business of a school which results in the largest gains of practical knowledge and skill, useful habits, and desirable feelings and attitudes, with the least friction and waste.*

From this definition it is clearly apparent that school management cannot be entirely separated from teaching, since only skillful teaching based on knowledge of educational principles can result in the largest returns of practical knowledge and skill, useful habits, and desirable feelings. However, since many useful habits and perhaps most of the ideals that govern conduct, are by-products of the school spirit, and since waste and friction can be avoided only through wise school management, no teacher's work can be successful unless she masters the principles underlying the management of schools. Hence, the creation and maintenance of a good school spirit, and the reduction of friction and waste in the rural school will be the central thought of this book.

Summary. — In this first chapter, school management has been defined as that directing of school affairs which results in the largest gains of practical knowledge and skill, useful habits, and desirable feelings, with the least possible friction and waste. Since knowledge is practical and habits are useful only as they are related to life,

the results gained by the pupils of our country schools must be judged by their adaptation to rural needs. Therefore, the well-managed rural school differs somewhat from the city school in the kind of knowledge it offers. There are many other differences, also. The smaller enrollment of the country school makes necessary far less routine, and gives opportunity for closer touch between teacher and pupils. This close touch gives the rural teacher an excellent opportunity for inspiring the best school spirit, molding the ideals of her pupils, and improving their habits of conduct. Reducing friction and checking waste make up the negative side of school management, but character building is a positive force.

EXERCISES

1. If your early schooling was secured in a rural school, state some knowledge that you acquired there which was not practical.
2. List the three most practical bits of knowledge or skill that you acquired in school in the order of their importance.
3. What has been the most useful habit you gained in the rural school? Was the teacher consciously aiming at this result?
4. Make a lesson plan for a nature study lesson in which the teacher's aim is to arouse an interest in beauty.
5. Do you know any country school whose patrons object to their children being taught by means of game devices? To what do you attribute this attitude?
6. State three different methods you plan to use for encouraging the pupils of your school to form the reading habit.
7. What habits or attitudes seem to you most lacking in the rural schools of your vicinity?
8. What do you understand by friction? By waste? Give an illustration of each from some rural school you know.
9. Bring to class at least three varying definitions of school management selected from various books, and compare them to bring out the essential likenesses and differences.

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¹ A complete bibliography of all references listed throughout this book, giving publishers and dates of appearance, will be found on p. 290.

CHAPTER II

THE CONSTRUCTIVE FORCE OF RURAL SCHOOL MANAGEMENT

Ideals of conduct formed by school management

Means of fixing ideals

 Association

 Imitation

 Participation

Ideals strengthened by exercise

Conduct subject to laws of habit formation

Importance of habits of conduct

Summary

Ideals of Conduct Formed by School Management. —

While most of the visible returns of the school are due to teaching that develops knowledge and skill, the management of the school is largely responsible for the ideals which modify conduct and form the basis for many useful habits.

The importance of ideals is realized by teachers who have been engaged in the work of Americanization, for this task is essentially that of imparting American ideals. America means more than equal opportunity. It means also a love of freedom, a spirit of fair play; it means, in short, characteristic American standards. Democracies are dependent upon the ideals of their citizens.

Means of Fixing Ideals. — Ideals of conduct may be implanted in the lesson period, but they are developed and fixed largely by means of *association, imitation, or participation*.

Association. — Enthusiastic teachers of history or literature may claim that in the study of these subjects the pupils are associating with noble characters, and thus shaping life's ideals. Most children, however, draw a sharp line between the real and the imaginary. What the "other fellows" do, in the classroom or upon the playground, influences their conduct far more than what was recorded as done by the heroes of history or literature. The conduct of the older people with whom they are associated also has a marked effect upon their behavior. Many old sayings have been proved false, many have served their day of usefulness, but the proverb, "Example is better than precept," stills holds true.

It is unfortunate that so many of the associations of rural school pupils are unsupervised and left without guidance or direction. One of the country teacher's best opportunities for vitally affecting the ideals of her pupils is through the intimate companionship necessitated when both the lunch period and the playground are properly supervised and directed. The close association of teacher and pupils in community affairs is also helpful.

The crowded course of study necessary in one-teacher schools makes group assignments and group work very advantageous. In such group activities the association is much closer than in the work of the traditional class recitation. In the various industrial activities of the modern rural school much may be done through association in fostering the ideals of consideration for others, coöperation, loyalty to leaders, neatness, fair division of labor, and faithful performance of duties assumed.

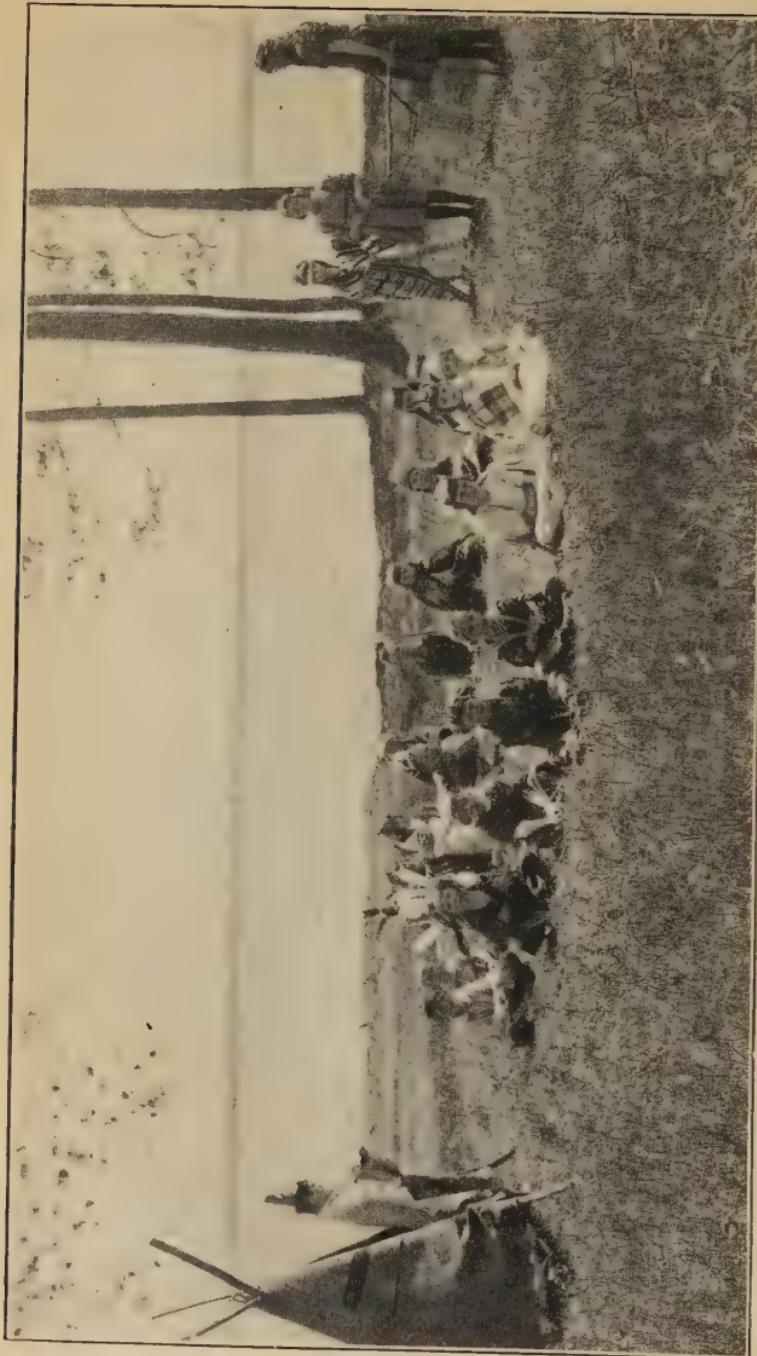
The association of pupils in outside activities is another agency for fostering democratic ideals. The good health club, Junior Red Cross, corn club, canning club, and similar organizations, all encourage the ideals which improve conduct. In some organizations, as the Grange and the School Improvement League, the pupils of the school are associated with the adults of the community. Every progressive teacher manages her school so that her pupils are afforded opportunities to profit by as many and as varied associations as possible. One of the best arguments in favor of the consolidated rural school is that it makes possible a wider range of associations.

Imitation.—Another way in which young people acquire the ideals which make or mar their characters is by *imitation*. Here the rural teacher's influence is most marked. Many a country school has been taught less than three weeks by some attractive, forceful young woman, before every big girl in school has her hair arranged "like teacher's." Attempts to copy the style of dress, speech, and manners of a popular teacher may seem laughable; but, as external signs of an inward tendency, they should cause any thoughtful teacher so to order her conduct that she may become a worthy example. Frequently a school that has been turbulent and troublesome is completely transformed upon the appearance of a teacher who is pleasant, quiet, ingenuous, and forceful. The instinct of imitation is very strong in early childhood, but it has strength also in later life. Many of our ideals and habits of conduct are the results of imitation.

Because the instinct of imitation is so marked, and

DRAMATIZATION IN RURAL SCHOOLS

Children of the Normal School at Bemidji, Minnesota, dramatizing Ji-shib, the Ojibway Indian boy.



the habit of following a leader so strong, the wise teacher makes it a part of her school management to win the leaders in both school and community. Frequently failure in some desired reform may be forestalled by studying the situation and choosing leaders for each group who are strong and loyal. As far as possible in all neighborhood affairs the teacher should keep herself in the background, and give opportunity for the development of local leadership.

Because of this instinctive tendency to imitate others, and because ideals are so largely acquired through imitation, many of the selections from history and literature which are full of action and valuable moral lessons should be dramatized or acted by pupils. This conscious imitation of an imaginary or historic character will not affect conduct so much as the unconscious imitation of associates, but it will be much more effective than merely reading of worthy deeds or talking about them.

Participation. — But while ideals may be fostered by association and by imitation, the most effective way to inspire a desired ideal is through *participation*. It is an unquestionable fact that it requires great skill, wisdom, and tact for a teacher to give the pupils a large share in school discipline and management. Most teachers — at least those trained in the older schools of pedagogy — find it far easier to conduct a school in which the pupils have no part in the management of affairs, but are as “dumb, driven cattle,” whose only duty is obedience.

Yet the value of pupil participation in school government is great, and since in rural schools older pupils are

often well prepared to assume responsibility, every thoughtful teacher of a one-room school needs seriously to consider how large a part in school management her pupils should assume. This problem must be considered from two points of view: first, the profit that will accrue to the school from the teacher's being freed from routine tasks; and second, the opportunity for growth that responsibility will bring to pupils. After the teacher and the school have decided what officers and monitors are needed, it is usually better to have them elected by the school rather than appointed by the teacher. The choice of capable officers makes each pupil realize his participation in school affairs and renders his obedience to these officers more prompt and cheerful.

Some of the duties which may well be assumed by pupils in the one-teacher rural schools are: the preparation of the hot dish for the lunch, the overseeing of the outdoor play periods which primary pupils should have during school hours, the direction of the bench work in manual training, the erection and supervision of playground equipment, the care of flowers or vines upon the school grounds, assistance in sewing, the supervision of primary seatwork, and the care of industrial materials.

The playground is an excellent place for the development of democratic ideals. Many moral and social lessons can be implanted while the teacher is sharing in playground activities. Verbal expressions such as our "fair play" and "good teamwork," and the English, "That's not cricket," prove that important ideals of conduct are fostered by participation in playground sports and athletics.

Ideals Strengthened by Exercise. — Some of the ideals essential for good citizenship in a democracy have become fixed expressions, almost axiomatic in form. Among these are: "A square deal for everyone," "The good of the group must be considered," "The majority should rule," "Leaders are to be obeyed," and "The weak should be protected." But it is evident that most of these ideals must be strengthened by practice before they can be depended upon to modify conduct. It is not enough to know what is right, it may even prove insufficient to admire the right; conduct depends upon ideals of ethics plus habits of behavior.

The constructive force of rural school management lies in the fact that it affords excellent opportunities for both these modifications of character. There can be no doubt that the family is the ideal place for moral education. The small school, in which are found children of widely varying ages, is more like the family than any other type of school; consequently it is well adapted for implanting and strengthening ethical ideals, as well as for giving constant practice in the habits essential to good citizenship.

The weak or ineffectively managed school not only fails to use its opportunities for developing ideals and affording the practice needed for the fixation of helpful habits, but may even thwart good impulses aroused by skillful teaching. For example, lessons in sanitation, when well taught, should inspire a fear of disease germs, and a hearty appreciation and desire for cleansing sunlight, abundant fresh air, and pure drinking water. While teachers permit the school to lack all three of these life-giving elements, and make no effort to remedy

conditions, how can their hygiene lessons produce results? Yet such variance between class teaching and school practice is all too frequent in the traditional school.

Conduct Subject to Laws of Habit Formation.—While attitudes and ideals are invaluable as the basis of conduct, habits of behavior must be established and strengthened by the use of the general laws of habit formation. The three principles emphasized by Professor James are: (1) Make a strong start; (2) Allow no exceptions; (3) Lose no opportunity to practice.

The first rule, *make a strong start*, is one reason for organizing clubs. Organizations of this type which have pledges, rules, and honors are very valuable in furnishing a strong start for desirable habits. For this reason the health club, thrift club, Boy and Girl Scout organizations, and Camp Fire Girls are great aids to the rural teacher who makes use of their help.

If pupils are to *allow no exceptions* in their practice of social habits of behavior, school management must be uniform and democratic. The ideal school is a place of calm and orderly freedom. In such an atmosphere pupils may practice habits of self-control, consideration for others, industry, perseverance, cheerfulness, good manners, and other habits of social value. Only where a good school spirit has been developed can we be certain that pupils will not be interrupted in the formation of desirable habits.

Association, participation, and coöperation are not only essential for implanting attitudes and ideals, but also for furnishing practice in habits of social conduct. In order to form correct habits of behavior, pupils must

have opportunity for activity and some freedom in choosing their course of action.

Importance of Habits of Conduct. — Some of these habits of conduct have such high moral and social values that they must be included as definite aims in any rational scheme of education. Dr. E. L. Thorndike says in his *Educational Psychology, Brief Course*:

A very small spread of training may be of very great educational value if it extends over a wide enough field. If a gain of 50% in justice toward classmates in school affairs increased the general equitableness of a boy's behavior only one-tenth of 1%, this disciplinary value would still perhaps be worth more than the specific habit. (P. 282.)

Since transfer of training is dependent upon the presence of identical elements in a situation, the more closely the school life resembles the life of the home and community, the greater the likelihood that habits of conduct, acquired and strengthened in school, will persist and function outside of school.

When the school spirit is one of artificial restraint, when the pupil sees no resemblance between school life and the life outside the school, it is much easier to form widely different habits of conduct. For example, instead of breaking the habit of swearing, the boy forms the habit of not swearing upon the school premises. Because the school is felt to be different from life, special habits are formed to meet school situations, and only the school atmosphere calls forth these habits of conduct. In the modern socialized school, however, in which school is only one part of the community life and activities, there is, surely, much greater transfer of training in habits of behavior.

No school can be said to have been well managed, whose management has not added ideals and habits of conduct to the gains of knowledge. Conduct depends upon ideals, and ideals are inspired and imbibed—never forced upon anyone. The constructive force of rural school management, then, is the power it affords the teacher of aiding the pupils in their great task of character building.

Summary.—In this chapter the positive or constructive side of school management has been discussed. In the intimate family-like group of the small rural school the teacher has a rare opportunity to mold the ideals of his pupils and improve their habits of conduct. A democracy depends upon the ideals of its citizens, and ideals are implanted and developed largely by association, imitation, and participation. Habits of behavior are subject to the general laws of habit formation. The constructive force of rural school management lies in the fact that it affords unusual opportunities for both the implanting of ideals and the practice in habits essential to good citizenship.

If every teacher could be placed in an ideal school, the affirmative side of school management would prove sufficient. For a number of years, however, rural schools have been so neglected that ideal conditions are the exception rather than the rule. These schools have been so poorly managed that evidences of friction and waste are seen on every hand.

EXERCISES

1. Plan a dramatization through which you hope to arouse or stimulate an ethical ideal.
2. Quote an instance within your own knowledge of a life being visibly changed through the influence of a character found in history or literature.
3. Tell of the most serious faults and the greatest virtues of self-government in schools, from observation if possible, if not, from careful study of printed accounts of such experiments.
4. Debate the question: *Resolved*: that ideals can be acquired more easily by participation than by imitation.
5. State three different ways by which you would utilize a marked capacity for leadership displayed by one of your pupils.
6. What habits of conduct have been most useful to you? When and how were these acquired?
7. Give a detailed account of your efforts to break a bad habit.
8. Bring to class a Boy Scout Manual or Camp Fire Girls Manual, and show how the pledges and shifting goals make successive "strong starts" in habit formation.
9. List ten ideals of conduct which you wish your pupils to possess, and determine how many of these can be developed through good school management.
10. Compare the spirit of your school with that of the best school you know. What factors do you find can be improved? Plan definite means to bring about this improvement.

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CHAPTER III

FRICITION AND WASTE REDUCED BY GOOD MANAGEMENT

FRICITION REDUCED BY GOOD MANAGEMENT

- Winning coöperation
- Securing obedience
- Uniformity in requirements
- Educating pupils in self-control
- The use of incentives

WASTE CHECKED BY GOOD MANAGEMENT

- Monetary waste
- Wasted effort
 - Improper classification
 - Poor teaching
 - Study of useless material
- Wasted time
 - Needless repetition
 - Lack of routine
 - Lack of educative seat work
 - Needless distraction
- Waste of opportunity
- Summary

FRICITION REDUCED BY GOOD MANAGEMENT

Friction in a school may be briefly defined as any hindrance in school work due to the conflict of wills, desires, or interests.

In order to reduce friction to the least possible degree, the teacher should try to win the coöperation of the school and the community, to secure obedience, to be uniform in requirements, and to encourage each pupil

in self-control. Much of the friction in a poorly managed school is due to the pupils' idea that this is the teacher's school, that rules are made solely for the teacher's convenience, and that the teacher has the sole responsibility for order and government in the schoolroom. As a basis for good school management, the teacher must depend upon the coöperation of the pupils and the community. The pupils and their parents should feel that the school exists for the benefit of the children, that rules are made only that school work may be done more efficiently, and that the teacher is there to serve as leader and guide, rather than as a taskmaster.

Of course, a teacher has authority and must occasionally punish an offender, but this authority should usually be kept in the background. When those of us who are from the country visit a large city, we welcome the sight of the blue uniform worn by the city policemen. To us that symbol of authority means: "Here is a man who can tell me what street car I wish to take," "I can go alone from the trolley to the hotel, although the hour is late, for there's a policeman," or, "It will be safe to cross this street now, for the traffic-policeman has given the signal and checked the automobiles." The policeman carries a club and a revolver, as everyone knows, but the average person thinks of him only as a guide, a source of information, or a protector. Only the exceptional man who is a criminal thinks of the policeman as an avenger; only the exceptional anarchist thinks of him as a tyrant. Just so should the teacher be guide, informer, and protector to the pupils of her school, and her punishing power should be rarely used.

Winning Coöperation. — In securing the coöperation necessary for good school management, a teacher needs to exercise three qualities — *interest, kindness, and activity*. A teacher's interest should approach enthusiasm in the work of the school and in the growth and progress of each pupil. She should share in the out-of-school life of the pupils and make frequent visits to their homes. She should take an interest in every uplifting movement in the neighborhood. The community will soon be aware of this attitude and will respond with interest in the affairs of the school. This basis of common concern in school and community affairs is essential to real coöperation. Only when people are awakened to common needs can they work together efficiently. Whenever the teacher, the pupils, and the community work together for the good of the school, success is assured. On the other hand, no school is really successful unless the right sort of school spirit is developed, and the citizens of the community become more public spirited than before.

Kindness is the inner fountain from which spring courtesy, patience, forbearance, and tact. The teacher who has a genuinely kindly attitude toward all about her will not be likely to offend prejudice, become involved in neighborhood quarrels, or mar her prospects of success by violating local customs. Kindness and cheer will win the confidence and support of the pupils and their parents. It must be remembered, however, that the tolerance of disobedience or other misconduct is not genuinely kind to either the offender or the school. When the child in the home needs a dose of unpleasant medicine, the kind mother firmly administers it. Just

so the really kind teacher administers reproof or even punishment when it is needed. But the kind teacher always puts the growth and welfare of the pupil and the general good of the school before any consideration of her own pleasure or convenience. Unselfish kindness, wisely manifested, is a great factor in winning coöperation.

The third factor in winning the approval and co-operation of the school and community is activity. Too often the work of the school is so different from the life outside that parents feel they can have no part in it, and hence make no attempt to coöperate. The types of schoolroom activity likely to result in community coöperation are industrial occupations and such work in hygiene, geography, agriculture, and history as touches local conditions. When girls are learning to cook and sew at school they gladly turn to their mothers for help in solving their school problems or working out the home projects assigned. If, in the manual training period, the boys are making articles of actual use and value upon the farm, the fathers usually offer their help and suggestion. The history and geography of the neighborhood must necessarily be referred to the older inhabitants as one source of authority. The more nearly the work of the school is related to the life of the community, the greater the responsibility of the community and the probability that it will aid in the school work.

The teacher should start some form of neighborhood activity in addition to the work that is done during school hours. The starting point for all such activities should be the school and its needs. For example, in case

the school needs a library or additional books, the teacher plans an entertainment. Local talent should be called in wherever possible, but, even if none of the people outside the school have part in this entertainment the mothers will be needed to help arrange costumes, and the whole neighborhood will be needed as audience. In making the school a social center, all activities should have their origin in the needs of the school, but the mothers' club, community chorus, farm club, or other forms of outside activity must depend upon community coöperation and result in the up-building of the neighborhood.

Securing Obedience. — Good school management secures obedience from all pupils. The highest type of obedience is based upon reason. Most of the children of a farming community are able to understand the need of the few rules a wise teacher has to make. If they understand why the rules are necessary, their obedience is likely to be prompt and cheerful. A teacher who wishes to be really kind to her pupils must be firm in requiring obedience to the few rules, signals, and commands found essential. Public schools are created to prepare efficient citizens, and obedience to law is one essential of good citizenship. Needless friction is avoided by the teacher's taking obedience for granted and promptly checking the slightest tendency to disobey.

Uniformity in Requirement. — One cause of friction in a poorly managed school is that the teacher tolerates to-day an offense that she punished yesterday. If a teacher's requirements are subject to change without notice, if her enforcement of law depends upon moods or digestion, friction is sure to be manifested. A teacher

must never permit herself to grow lax in her requirements if she would prevent laxity on the part of the pupils. Often it is easier to overlook misconduct than to check it; easier to permit little misdeeds than to insist kindly upon the best conduct of which each pupil is capable. Yet the strong teacher does not seek an easy path, but firmly checks these small beginnings of wrong-doing and calmly insists upon order and obedience.

Educating Pupils in Self-control. — In a well-managed school, the pupils are growing constantly in the power of self-control. Each child should be governed by the highest motive effective for him. The ideal is that each should carefully consider a new situation and choose the action he believes to be right. A school in which the majority of the pupils desire to do right because they love the right will practically govern itself. Most of the older pupils of a rural school, if they have had the proper home training, are capable of acting upon this plane; hence they should be carefully taught the moral value of right conduct in the schoolroom and held responsible for the example they set before the younger children. In the usual routine of school life, right conduct should be so habitual that it becomes automatic.

Probably the motive that is next highest is respect for authority. The teacher should be recognized, because of her superior age, training, and position, as one who represents the authority of parents and the state. This respect for authority and superior knowledge is not a low motive. Many schools are well governed because the majority of the pupils realize that in the last analysis the teacher's word is law. These children will

have increased respect for parental and governmental authority because of their obedient regard for that of the teacher.

A love of approval and a desire to please is probably the leading motive with most primary pupils. They are too young to have formed many valuable judgments concerning right and wrong. They are quick to reward kindness with loving loyalty, however, and this leads them to try to please the teacher and makes them desire the approval of their schoolmates. Even with primary children the teacher should appeal to the highest motive that will direct conduct, having self-control as the ideal and aiming at its establishment.

The fear of punishment, while it works quickly and surely, should be used only in the exceptional case. One great lack in the constant appeal to the fear motive is that it is not likely to be effective outside of school or away from the teacher's presence. No school can be said to be well managed which reverts to a noisy, chaotic mob whenever the teacher leaves the room. This is especially true of a country school, because some of the older pupils should be capable not only of self-control, but of influencing the younger pupils to proper conduct. Another defect in this mode of control is that it tends to make a child conceal his wrong conduct, even at the expense of truth. A teacher should have authority to punish, but in a well-managed school the appeal to fear should be a very unusual occurrence.

The Use of Incentives. — In governing, as in teaching, it is good management to avoid artificial or inferior incentives, or at least to use such spurs but seldom and to rely chiefly upon motives that develop moral character.

One inferior incentive is marks. Grades given for conduct upon report cards, and "honor rolls" placed upon the blackboard or hung upon the wall to record the names of pupils who have been quiet and orderly during the day are examples of the use of this incentive. The desire to receive such marks is not likely to make the child more capable of self-control, and the use of artificial aids is likely to cause friction.

Prizes offered for good conduct during the month or term are equally objectionable. Those who need such incentives most are usually indifferent and make no attempt to secure them, while those who invariably receive these awards need no such incentive.

Scolding and nagging are frequently used by teachers as negative incentives to proper conduct. It may be seriously doubted if any good result ever follows such forms of reproof. Nagging certainly causes needless friction, punishes the innocent as much as the guilty or more, and fails to correct offenses. Indeed, where a teacher's scolding is noticeably lacking in restraint, it is frequently provoked as a source of amusement. Reproof should be administered unobtrusively when it becomes necessary, but even then it is an appeal to the fear motive. It is far better for pupils to obey because they desire the approval of the teacher than because they fear her reproof.

The incentives to be used chiefly, then, are those that develop moral character and result in the pupil's self-control. The primary pupils obey because they love their teacher. Desire for the approval of the teacher and their schoolmates is perhaps the next step in the ascending scale. Respect for the teacher's age, knowl-

edge, and authority is another step toward good citizenship. Interest in the work being done and the results achieved is a good working motive. The conscious choice of right conduct because it is right is the highest of all incentives. Each pupil should be governed by the highest motive that will appeal to his age and advancement. Inferior incentives should be used with great caution. Only in very exceptional cases should an appeal be made to fear, because this is the lowest motive that actuates moral conduct.

WASTE CHECKED BY GOOD MANAGEMENT

Monetary Waste. — In addition to reducing friction to the least possible amount, a wise manager must check waste. Under present conditions there is very great waste in the average rural school — waste of money, effort, time, and opportunity. Perhaps the largest cause of monetary waste is found in supporting schools for only a few pupils. Many rural schools cost more per pupil than the tuition of leading universities. Irregular school attendance is another waste of money, because the money spent for building, fuel, and teachers' salaries is wasted when the pupils who should profit by this expense are not present to receive the teaching. Another source of monetary waste in rural schools is found in purchasing apparatus and books that are either valueless, unused by the teacher, or beyond the understanding of the pupils. Of course, any conscientious teacher would prevent the waste of public money due to the mutilation and destruction of school property or equipment. It may be necessary, also, to check, in some pupils, the tendency toward wastefulness of their own



CONSOLIDATION IN COLORADO

Above — The Center Consolidated School in Saguache County.

Below — Original school building, superintendent's home, and teacherage of the Sargent Consolidated School in Rio Grande County.

paper, pencils, and other material. This checking of needless waste is one of the most practical and efficient ways of teaching thrift.

Wasted Effort. — The three chief sources of wasted effort within the rural school are found to be *improper classification, poor teaching, and the study of useless material.*

Improper Classification. — The one-teacher rural school, because of its crowded program, cannot have the close grading characteristic of city schools. This fact is frequently given as the reason for the improper classification of country school pupils. While this may be one factor, there are at least two others to be considered.

First, the school authorities of many states have failed to prepare adequate manuals for the grading of rural schools. Every state should have a course of study, containing an exact statement of the work for each grade, together with suggestions as to the best methods of accomplishing this work. Educative seat work and supplementary suggestions should be included also. In addition to these essentials, the manual should contain several suggestive programs, in which both the recitations and the seat work are definitely planned. Moreover, this course should be written in language that is direct and free from technical phrases.

Second, teachers should be required to have a good working knowledge of the state course of study before they are granted certificates. Many rural teachers do not attempt to classify their pupils, because they have not the faintest idea of proper classification. If a graded course of study is provided by their state, it has never

been studied or has not been understood. Many a pupil in the rural schools is doing eighth grade arithmetic, fifth grade reading, and only third grade English; and several terms are required to overcome such irregularities in grading.

Much effort is wasted, also, by rural pupils in trying to master subjects too difficult for them to understand. Many classes that struggle and stumble through a fourth reader, fixing countless bad habits of incorrect pronunciation, wrong intonation, and lack of expression, become interested and really learn to read when provided with reading material intended for second grade. Unless a pupil is so classified that his studies can be mastered with reasonable work, there is a waste of effort. Hard tasks successfully accomplished bring a glow of achievement, but attempts to do work too hard for one's ability cause discouragement.

Poor Teaching. — Another source of wasted effort is to be found in wrong methods of teaching and in poor methods of study. Though this discussion brings us into the field of pedagogy, it must be included here because so much waste is due to these causes. Much effort is wasted by teachers in accepting words in place of ideas. Pupils memorize whole pages of geography, history, or physiology, believing that they are studying. When they are questioned, it is found that many times they have no idea of the meaning of the words so glibly recited; sometimes incorrect meanings have been attached; and frequently whatever ideas may have been aroused are so vague and hazy that the pupils cannot express them. They have worked harder than necessary because it is much harder to memorize words that mean

nothing than those whose meaning is clear, but their labor is wasted.

Another way in which rural pupils waste effort is by studying facts as separate items and giving the important and the unimportant equal attention. Students should learn facts in their relations and should organize the ideas presented in their textbooks. An understanding of cause and effect and other logical relations should be demanded by the teacher. The only true test of knowledge is the ability to use properly the facts learned. The mere facts of a given lesson do not constitute the lesson itself. So many yards of goods, a spool of thread, a pattern, and a sewing machine, are not a new dress. The dress may be made from these by skillful hands that bring them into proper relation. Just so must genuine study be directed by an aim and the facts and ideas organized so that knowledge may take usable forms.

Another source of wasted effort is found in studying and reciting lessons so as to form connections unlike those used in life. For example, people ordinarily need to spell words only when they write, yet much of the spelling in rural schools is recited orally. In life we need the quick solving of simple mental arithmetic, as in buying and in counting change, yet in most rural schools practically all the arithmetic is written. In life people need rapid silent reading, yet almost no drill in silent reading is to be found in the average rural school. Indeed, to many pupils in the country, reading seems to mean only the monotonous pronouncing of words, with no attempt to get the thought or to convey it to others. More effort should be made to make school work fit life conditions.

The Study of Useless Material. — In addition to the waste of effort due to improper classification and mistaken methods of study, much effort is wasted in attempts to master useless material and learn facts and processes that have no value in life. Examples of this kind of waste in education are: learning to spell words seldom or never to be used by the pupil; mastering such processes as those involved in partial payments or cube root in arithmetic; much of the parsing and analyzing, once so large a part of the school's work in English; and learning the exact geographical location of unimportant towns.

Most of these useless facts were put into school textbooks years ago because of two ideas that have since been proved largely false. The first of these was that reason and memory grew by exercise; that, once these powers were developed, they could be applied equally well to any material. Scientific investigation has proved, however, that a student may be an excellent thinker in one subject and a very poor one in another. A man may master the deepest truths of philosophy and yet be a very poor business man. No subject should be taught in the grades of the public school whose only value is that it makes the student think.

The second mistaken notion was that patience, perseverance, and other valuable qualities could be cultivated only by requiring pupils to master tasks that were difficult and uninteresting. This idea also has been found incorrect. It is only when a pupil is interested in his work that the best results are accomplished. Only when some real aim is sought will a worker try and try again, disregard failure, use his

thinking power to the utmost, and go out of his way to seek suggestive material. Without genuine interest, no pupil can put himself into his work in such a way that it becomes truly educative. Useful tasks, which must be mastered in order to develop efficient citizens, will offer enough difficulties to develop character. No material should ever be presented to pupils merely because it is difficult.

Wasted Time. — Not only effort but time, also, is wasted in rural schools to-day. By needless repetition of the work of former years, by lack of system, by lack of educative seat work, and by needless distractions, many valuable hours are lost.

Needless Repetition. — The fact that pupils are not properly classified is one reason for repeating work already learned. Sometimes a pupil covers the same ground in the same textbook for three or more successive years. Such waste of time is the more deplorable because it encourages lack of interest, with consequent habits of idleness and disorder. If it is necessary, in order to reduce the grades to a workable number, that a pupil cover the same ground, the very least a teacher can do is to furnish a different textbook, so that the material may be new.

Lack of Routine. — Much time is wasted in rural schools by *lack of fixed routine*. Because of the small enrollment and varied ages of pupils, the rural school needs far less routine or system than the large, complex city schools. Time is saved and needless confusion avoided, however, by fixed ways of calling and dismissing the school, distributing materials, getting wraps, and other items of daily procedure. A teacher should

decide upon the simplest and most convenient way of doing each of these, start the first day, and require prompt obedience to all signals until such obedience becomes a habit.

Lack of Educative Seat Work. — Much of the time spent by primary pupils in rural schools is wasted because educative seat work, suited to their capacities and guided by a definite aim, is rarely provided. First and second grade pupils are kept in the schoolroom two or three hours longer than children of the same grades in city schools, and have far less material provided that is interesting and instructive. At the age when they should be receiving many varied sense impressions, they are furnished with little or nothing to see, hear, and handle. If the right kind of seat work is provided and the little folks are given a sufficient amount of physical activity, time will be saved for them and for the school as a whole. This saving to the whole group comes from the elimination of this one needless source of distraction. If these little folks, who cannot yet study, are not kept happily employed with seat work, they will inevitably hinder the work of the older pupils. Idleness is one of the chief causes of disorder. If all pupils are kept busily employed at profitable work there will be little trouble with discipline.

Needless Distraction. — Perhaps the greatest source of waste due to needless distraction, however, is that caused by physical discomfort. The moving of pupils to and fro to get into a comfortably heated spot, the restlessness due to lack of pure air, the disorder caused by insufficient lighting — these are distractions that are almost insurmountable difficulties in the way of main-

taining order. Much time is wasted in the ordinary rural school because of needless distractions due to the physical discomfort of working in unsanitary buildings.

Many of the distractions frequently discussed as types of disorder in the schoolroom should be regarded merely as signs or symptoms of wrong conditions. Whispering, note-writing, and similar offenses are usually due to friction between the teacher and her pupils, to idleness on the part of the pupils, or to a combination of friction and idleness. The wise deal with the disease rather than the symptoms. Remove the cause of the friction or idleness, and the distractions of whispering and similar annoyances will disappear.

Waste of Opportunity. — Another serious waste in the rural school is found in the waste of special opportunity. Every country boy or girl has the opportunity of acquiring a large store of knowledge concerning natural history. It is the duty of the teacher to become an enthusiastic student of nature, to secure as large a fund of nature lore as possible, and to lose no chance of imparting this information to the pupils and arousing their interest. Nowhere is greater opportunity offered for building up rugged health, also. In many localities both of these valuable opportunities are sadly neglected but special attention will be accorded them later. The teaching of sanitation is well done only when it results in health-giving habits. No teacher has successfully taught hygiene whose work does not increase the general health of the school and community.

Summary. — Since the average rural school has been long neglected, much of the work of school management must consist of efforts to remedy wrong conditions.

Friction in the schoolroom can be reduced by depending upon the coöperation of the school and the community. This coöperation is likely to be gained by interest, kindness, and activity. The teacher should secure obedience that is prompt, cheerful, and based upon the proper motive. She should be uniform in her requirements and conduct. This uniformity can be maintained only through constant watchfulness and self-control. In addition to the practice of personal self-control, the teacher must train her pupils in this virtue by holding each one responsible and appealing to the highest motive through which each may be effectively reached. Inferior incentives should be avoided or used sparingly, and the chief dependence placed upon motives that develop moral character.

It is also the duty of every rural teacher to check the appalling waste now found in the district school. The waste of money may be remedied by securing regular attendance and by the practical teaching of thrift. Wasted effort can be largely reduced by classifying the pupils correctly, mastering the best methods of teaching, and eliminating useless facts found in courses of study. Time can be saved by avoiding needless repetition, by furnishing educative seat work, and by removing the causes of needless distraction. Good school management checks all waste. In order to do this, however, the teacher herself must be thrifty, an efficient and tireless worker, and awake to the advantages and opportunities of rural life.

EXERCISES

1. Relate an instance showing how coöperation made a school easier to manage.
2. What has been the most serious waste you have noticed in rural schools? How would you plan to check this waste?
3. State three ways in which the average rural teacher can improve her teaching methods.
4. Compare the per pupil cost of a \$1000 school of twelve pupils with that of a consolidated school of ninety-eight pupils costing \$7500 yearly.
5. Would you always hold a teacher responsible for the pupils' waste of time, effort, or opportunity?
6. Write an incident which has occurred in some rural school you know, illustrative of some form of needless waste.
7. Relate an incident showing how some pupil became aware of wasted opportunity through a teacher's influence.
8. List the school incentives you are employing and see whether they tend to develop self-control and whether they are of the highest type that can possibly be used.
9. Show how standard tests may be used to remedy improper classification.
10. Take notes upon the employment of one primary pupil in your school for three successive days to determine whether he lacks a sufficient amount of interesting occupations of an educative type.

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CHAPTER IV

ORGANIZATION AND PRELIMINARY WORK

Contrast in the opening of urban and of rural schools

Preliminary study of community conditions

School records

Tentative program

Seat work planned

The preparatory house-cleaning

The first day

Summary

Much friction and waste may be avoided by making a strong start in the task of teaching. For this reason the success of the first day's work is of vital importance. In order to make this day successful in rural schools much preparation is necessary on the part of the teacher.

Contrast in the Opening of Urban and Rural Schools.

— In city schools, practically all the work of organizing the school, and much of its management, is shifted from the grade teachers to the principals, supervisors, and superintendent. At a teachers' meeting, held before the school opens, each grade teacher is given a list of the pupils regularly promoted to her room, and instructed to send any others to the principal's office for classification. A course of study, showing the exact ground covered in each subject up to the present time and giving details of the material and methods for the coming year is provided for each teacher's use. The program used in the room the preceding year is usually provided,

and the grade teacher is required to consult a supervisor before making changes. Frequently a list of printed rules and regulations is furnished. Exact explanations as to the meaning of various bells, the entrances to be used by the different grades, and other minute details too numerous to mention are also given. In addition to this, modes of reward and punishment are often fixed by the principal or superintendent, while some cities require all punishment to be administered by the principal. Thus the teacher's part in the organization of the school is usually very slight.

How different is the task of organizing the average rural school! Here the pupils must be enrolled and classified; a program must be drafted; general regulations formulated; and, in short, all the work necessary to making the school run smoothly must be done at once and usually by the teacher alone.

It is of the greatest importance that the first day's work prove successful, so that pupils may have a good impression of the teacher's ability and skill. In order to accomplish the vast amount of work essential to the proper starting of the rural school, much of the work should be done before the first day. If these preliminary tasks have been well done, work can be started at once when school begins. To take a half day to get the school ready for work is not only a waste of time, but is likely to result in idleness and disorder and the consequent loss of the pupils' respect. Work is the best preventive of mischief and disorder; hence, the wise teacher has all pupils busily engaged in work from nine o'clock on the morning of the first day.

To be able to begin work at once and start all activities

of the school with something of the smoothness and order desired, at least *four tasks must be accomplished* before the first day. *First*, the pupils' names must be secured, with the age and classification of each. *Second*, the teacher must become familiar with the course of study or requirements for grading used in the state in which her school is located. *Third*, a preliminary or tentative program of classes and study periods must be made out ready for use on the first day. This may need radical changes later, but some sort of guide for the first days is indispensable. And *fourth*, a general plan for the work of the first week and a careful plan of the first day's work must also be prepared.

Preliminary Study of Community Conditions. — One of the first requisites for making a good start is that the teacher should have a knowledge of the pupils' out-of-school life, family peculiarities, neighborhood antagonisms, or other social conditions likely to affect school management. The teacher can secure this knowledge only by spending some time in the community previous to the opening of the school. Usually some information can be acquired at the time of signing the contract, and this with the acquaintance gained by arriving upon the scene a few days before school opens will prove sufficient. Let no teacher begrudge this time, for it is to her great advantage to learn the interests, tastes, and present stage of advancement of her prospective pupils.

An interesting story illustrating this point is related in *Better Rural Schools* by Betts and Hall. After telling of a teacher whose school had been a failure solely because the wrong boarding place had been chosen, the following incident is narrated:

In striking contrast with this case was that of another teacher who, in earlier days, was employed to teach the winter term of a rural school in northern Missouri. This young man, a mere stripling, had heard something of the difficulties to be encountered in this school. The former teachers had been turned out each winter for the three preceding years. Our young stripling looked like an easy mark, for he was small and slender, and not skilled in the rougher arts of self-defense. He went over to the district a full week before the school was to open, to see if perchance he could better prepare for the opening day. He went about the neighborhood and became acquainted with the patrons and pupils. Especially did he look up one particular boy called Bill. He desired to become acquainted with Bill, for two reasons: Bill was something of a hunter, and the teacher liked to hunt. But Bill was also a leader of the gang that had turned the previous teachers out, and the teacher wanted to win Bill to his side. The teacher and Bill went coon hunting together; they shucked corn into the same wagon. Before the end of the week they had become friends.

Monday morning came, and the young teacher was at the school early. The boys began to assemble on the school ground. The teacher heard them talking as he worked by an open window. They were planning how they would begin on the new teacher, and were laying wagers as to how long he would last. Suddenly the teacher heard a new voice enter the conference. It was Bill. "What's up, boys?" said Bill. They told him, expecting Bill to suggest a bolder and more effective plan than they had conceived, and then take the lead in its execution. But imagine their astonishment when Bill answered: "It's all off, boys. Nobody is going to interfere with the new teacher. I've got acquainted with him and he's the right kind. He's square; he'll be fair. I'm his friend, and anybody that puts up trouble for him has got me to lick — See?" They saw.

This incident was related in introducing the two principal speakers before a great educational convention a number of years ago. These speakers were Bill and his teacher, still fast friends and now famous educators. They were introduced as "the Honorable William T. Harris, United States Commissioner of Education" and "the Honorable Henry Sabin, State Superintendent of Public Instruction in Iowa." The young stripling of a teacher, by his willingness to make himself one of his school community, had been instrumental in giving to his country one of the greatest educators of modern times and had foreshadowed his own highly honorable and useful educational career. Besides this, he had won out in his winter's school.

Of course, not every instance of making an early visit to the school community has such far-reaching results, but it is always the wise thing to do, and in some cases it is essential to the success of the school.

School Records. — If former teachers have kept careful records of the pupils enrolled and their classification, these are usually furnished to the prospective teacher by the county or district superintendent. The names of the six-year-old children who will be enrolled for the first time, and the names of the children of any new families can then be easily procured and added in the few days spent in the neighborhood before the opening of school. If no records have been supplied or if these records have not been correctly kept, a few days may be profitably employed largely upon this one task. A conscientious teacher will study the directions given upon the record forms used in her school, and will keep all records and make all reports accurately and promptly.

Most states furnish teachers with a course of study and manual for grading rural schools. This is usually given to the teacher by the county superintendent, together with the records, supplies, and a copy of the school law, or distributed to prospective teachers at summer schools or institutes. A teacher should study these bulletins, especially the course of study, with much care before her school begins. In case new textbooks have been introduced, she should also procure these and study them with care.

Tentative Program. — Most states publish suggestive programs for the rural school in the state course of study. Such a program, or one copied from some textbook on rural teaching, may be used as a temporary

schedule until the teacher becomes familiar enough with the conditions of the school to amend and make alterations. The program should definitely mark the time limits of each recitation, and map out the work which the various classes are to pursue in their seats during each period.

Seat Work Planned. — Another preliminary task that will well repay the time and effort of the teacher is the preparation of some seat work for the younger pupils. By all means provide a few boxes of colored crayons and pencils for imaginative drawings, some envelopes containing picture puzzles made by cutting bright colored post cards into fantastic shapes, and a few home-made sentence builders and word-drill cards based upon the primer to be used. Pages in large type cut from old magazines on which words learned may be marked with pencils and magazine pictures suitable for cutting out may also serve as seat work for the first few days of school.

The Preparatory House Cleaning. — Another matter essential to the success of the first day which must be attended to by the teacher, if it has been neglected by the trustees, is the thorough cleaning of the schoolhouse and outbuildings. This is frequently neglected, a fact which constitutes an additional reason for the teacher's arrival in the neighborhood several days before the opening of school. If the trustees have not hired someone to clean the building, or have entrusted the task to some careless or slovenly person, this matter must be looked after by the teacher. In case the trustees, when urged, still fail to do their duty in this respect, the work must be done by the teacher herself, assisted either by

some of her prospective pupils or by the family of a friendly school patron.

The teacher, then, who wishes her first day to be the most successful possible will be in a clean school-room early in the morning, with the names and classification of her pupils, a knowledge of the basis for classification in her state together with the books to be used in each grade, a temporary program of classes and studies, and a carefully prepared plan for the first day's work, including seat work materials and pictures or objects for illustrating the lessons planned.

The First Day. — Plans for the first day should be as complete as possible. Written outlines cannot be made for each lesson, but special features may be carefully prepared. After the opening exercises, lessons may be assigned to older pupils for study, and the class of beginners called. Suppose the word "ball" is found somewhere in the first few pages of the primer. The little beginners are always interested in playthings and in action, so the word "ball" may be chosen as the basis for the first reading lesson. A small colored ball is produced by the teacher, and the children are led to share in various play activities with the ball, such as rolling, tossing, and bouncing. The directions are then written upon the board by the teacher and read to the class while each child learns to associate the written directions with the corresponding play activity. This produces a natural situation in which the children need to read before sharing the game.

At the close of the period of ten or twelve minutes each little beginner may be given a colored pencil and a piece of paper and shown how to make a ball by using

the oval movement. Mass drawings are easier for little children than outlines, and the oval movement is a preparation for future work in writing. This mass drawing of a ball will serve as seat work while the next class recites.

All lessons for the first day should be short. The younger pupils should be kept busily employed. During the language or literature period a story may be told by the teacher. This should be a part of the day's plan, and should have been well prepared. The primary pupils can make pictures suggested by this story, preferably upon the blackboard, at a later seat-work period.

Another activity of the first day should be the teaching of a new game to the pupils upon the playground at recess. In this it will be well to plan an indoor game, as well as one for outdoors, because the first day may be rainy.

The program and manual for grading will serve as guides in planning the first day's work for all pupils old enough to use textbooks. The teacher should, therefore, devote much of her time and energy to making the work interesting and educative for the beginners. If the "ball" lesson suggested for the first period has been used in the morning, after recess the class should be given a word drill, in which the words in the morning lesson are reviewed by some game device. For example, the pointer race may be used. In this the three verbs, and the expression "the ball" are written in two columns in different order. Give two pupils pointers, and let them race to see which can point first to any designated word. To the review words may be added a few new words. Suppose the morning lesson has been "Roll the

ball"; "Bounce the ball"; and "Toss the ball"; the words "big" and "little" might then be introduced, and the pupils sent to the board to make a big ball and a little one. In this board drawing, too, they should use the oval movement. The plan for beginning reading should always be based on the first book to be used. Many good primers have teacher's manuals containing plans for first lessons.

Beginning pupils should also have one extra outdoor period each session. This may be correlated with nature study. For example, they may be sent to the playground and told to bring back as many different kinds of leaves as they can find. In the nature study period these leaves can be named, and the trees or bushes discussed. Some teachers have little pupils trace the outlines of the leaves for seat work, associating the names of the leaves with these outlines.

Only by careful planning can the first day of school be successfully taught. The importance of every word and action expressed by the teacher on the first day can hardly be overestimated. The pupils will talk to each other and will tell the family at the supper table every little detail of the day's happenings. A bad impression will be a hindrance to the teacher for weeks or months, while the impression that she is kind, competent, and interested, will be an immediate source of help and power throughout the term. This desirable impression can be won only through good organization based on much preliminary work.

Summary. — The work of organizing the school, with all the preliminary work necessary, is usually dependent upon the teacher alone. Several tasks must be accom-

plished before the opening of school if the organization is to be successful. The prospective teacher must acquire knowledge of the pupils' names, ages, and classification; must become familiar with the state course of study, the state school law, and the adopted textbooks; must prepare a temporary program of classes and study periods; must make a careful plan for the first day's work, including seat work and illustrative material; must learn of any community conditions that may affect the school; and must ascertain that the schoolhouse is in a clean and orderly condition.

EXERCISES

1. Secure from a city teacher a list of the different items of information, outlines for guidance, rules, class records, and other material furnished her previous to the first day of school. Ask a country teacher for similar data, and compare results.
2. Choose the side you wish to defend, and outline your argument on the question: "*Resolved*: that a rural school teacher should spend at least three days in the community in which she is to teach previous to the opening of her school."
3. Relate, from your own experience, the story of an unsuccessful first day in a rural school.
4. Give a detailed account of a first day which you consider successful.
5. By comparison, find out what essential difference in the work of the teachers produced these opposite results.
6. Make an outline of your state course of study and bring up for class discussion any part that was especially difficult to understand.
7. State three sources of information which an inexperienced teacher should consult to secure needed information for making a tentative school program or schedule.
8. What part of your first day's work has been most difficult for you? Why?
9. List in the order of their importance the good effects that should result from a well-planned first day.

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CHAPTER V

THE TEACHER AS A FACTOR IN SCHOOL MANAGEMENT

The teacher the chief factor in school management

Wrong conception of school management

Qualities of the teacher essential to good management

Knowledge

Industry

Daily preparation

Appearance

Voice

Health

Good manners

Courage

Enthusiasm

Sympathy

Summary

The Teacher the Chief Factor in School Management.

— As in the initial organization of a rural school laborious tasks must be accomplished by the rural teacher, so in all the work of rural school management the teacher is the chief factor. There is no doubt that there should be more adequate supervision of rural schools, and several progressive states are now awake to this need. Rural communities need to be aroused to their responsibilities toward the school and its teacher. Farmers should tax themselves more heavily in order to secure better buildings, pay fair wages, and assure good living conditions for teachers. Pupils should attend school more regularly and apply themselves to

their tasks with greater diligence. All these ideal conditions, however, are more likely to follow in the wake of good teachers than to precede their coming. By far the largest factor in rural school management at present is the rural teacher.

Wrong Conception of School Management. — It has been estimated that two-thirds of all teachers who fail in rural schools owe their defeat to inefficient school management. Many people who have taught several terms and then entered other work declare that they liked teaching, but that school management was distasteful to them. This difficulty and distaste is in part due to a wrong conception of order and government. In some sections of the country the ideas of repression through fear, of absolute silence, military precision, and frequent use of the rod, still prevail. This conception is contrary to modern educational principles. It is now the belief of the best educators that the school exists primarily for the child; that the teacher should be a leader and guide, not a tyrant and master; and that true education is the development of children in voluntary self-control and efficient self-expression. Fear and repression hinder the realization of these aims in education. Children who have all their actions controlled by another have no opportunity to practice self-control, while the tyrannical "Don't do this, that, or the other" is characteristic of the world-hated autocracy of an older order. Such a form of school government can never prepare pupils for capable citizenship in a great democracy like ours.

Training in self-control and in self-expression is a necessary part of education for democratic citizenship.

But this preparation cannot be given amid disorder, friction, or lawlessness. Hence the task of school management is one that every teacher needs to study. There is a very close relation between teaching and managing a school. Many a teacher has been considered a failure because of poor school management, when the real fault was in the teaching. Inattention is inevitably followed by disorder, and inattention is often the result of poor teaching. This disorder, which is in reality but the sign of something wrong rather than the root of trouble, can easily be noticed by anyone who enters the room. Pupils tell their parents that the teacher does not "keep order," and visitors who would not attempt to criticize the teacher's methods feel quite competent to remark about the disorderly schoolroom.

Qualities of the Teacher Essential to Good Management. — Many books on pedagogy and school management attribute the success or failure of a school to the teacher's "personality." This word, however, is very general and its meaning is not entirely clear. It seems best, therefore, to abandon the general term, and discuss various qualities and abilities of the teacher as they affect school management.

Knowledge. — In the first place, there is a very direct relation between the management of the schoolroom and the *knowledge* of the teacher. Many teachers fail in their work, because they do not know enough to teach successfully. Teachers need not only a good general knowledge of the subjects to be taught, but definite knowledge of child nature, school sanitation, and teaching methods. In addition to this every teacher needs to have particular knowledge of each child in his

school. Dr. Claxton, formerly United States Commissioner of Education, says: "Rural teachers must know five things: the pupils' heredity, their pre-school life, their out-of-school life, the work of previous school years, and the spirit, aspirations and needs of the community."

Industry. — Many experienced school supervisors declare that most of the failures in school management are due to the teacher's lack of *industry*. Even a poorly prepared teacher if she be industrious may by earnest, persistent study, gain much needed knowledge for each day's tasks. Too many teachers feel, however, that their day's work lasts only from nine o'clock in the morning to four in the afternoon for five days in the week. No teacher can hope to make a success of either teaching or managing a school who does not use at least two hours more each day in preparing and planning the work to come, visiting the homes of the pupils, and acquiring additional knowledge for immediate use in teaching. It is never best for a young teacher to go home every Friday evening, even when a part of Saturday is spent while there in preparing school work for the following week. The teacher's time and efforts for the entire term belong to the school, and the success of the school must come first. Teaching is emphatically not a "lazy man's job."

Daily Preparation. — Another factor that has a vital bearing upon school government is the teacher's *daily preparation*. The lessons to be taught must be carefully studied and planned. As a rule the teacher should know the lesson well enough to teach without a book. To make good assignments she should keep her study at

least two days in advance of the classes. That is, on Monday evening she should prepare the lessons to be taught Wednesday, so that she can intelligently assign the work to the classes on Tuesday. Primary seat work must also be carefully planned. A notebook should be kept, in which plans can be at least briefly outlined. When the routine of the day's work has been well prepared, the teacher's attention is freed for meeting the new and unexpected demands that arise. Nothing helps a teacher more to control and master the situation than careful daily preparation.

Appearance. — After knowledge, industry, and daily preparation, the teacher's *appearance* should be considered next as a factor in school management. Many city superintendents refuse to hire a grade teacher without a personal interview, because they feel that they can judge ability largely by appearance. Not everyone can be beautiful, but a frank and open gaze, clear skin, kindly smile, alert movement, erect and self-confident bearing, neat apparel — all these are significant elements of beauty that are possible to the least favored, and, without these "outward signs of inward grace," a teacher cannot be sure of commanding success. No teacher can inspire an ideal school spirit unless she wins the respect of her pupils, and no teacher is worthy of respect who is untidy or careless in appearance. Clothing should be neat, becoming, and suitable for the work and the neighborhood. Children are usually excellent judges of character, and appearance is a valuable index to character.

Voice. — The teacher's voice is another important element in the success of the school. The voice of a

good teacher is generally clear, gentle, low-toned, and firm. Often the strident, nagging tone, which so upsets pupils and destroys the efficiency of the school, comes from nerve strain and worry due to the teacher's lack of preparation. Sometimes it may be traced to over-indulgence in social pleasures, late hours, or improper food. It may arise from overwork caused by striving to attain impossible or wrong ideals. Whatever its origin, its effect may be easily tested. If any teacher who finds herself talking loudly, rapidly, and in a nervous high-pitched voice, will make herself speak in low and gentle tones, she will immediately notice a difference in the attitude of the pupils. Many teachers talk entirely too much, and have discovered that the bulk of their trouble with school management disappears when once they overcome the habit of talking too much and too loudly. To be a real leader one must possess a well-poised personality, and one indication of such a personality is a voice that is "ever gentle, soft, and low — an excellent thing" in teachers.

Health. — But the teacher's knowledge, industry, preparation, appearance, and voice are all more or less dependent upon her general *health*. Only the exceptional person can teach successfully without good health and the possession of the knowledge and will-power which will enable her to preserve this most valuable asset. One of the most essential items in the preservation of health, that is, exercise, will almost take care of itself in teaching a country school. The teacher who has a mile or more to walk to and from school, and who does her own janitor work or plays vigorously with the pupils at recess and noon need trouble her mind very

little about exercise. Plenty of fresh air is readily procurable, also, and in most country neighborhoods there is little difficulty about getting enough good food. Indeed, the rural teacher usually needs to guard against overeating. But teachers, more than most people, need adequate rest, and this is not always so available in the average farm home. Not only should the teacher have a comfortable bed in which to sleep eight hours out of each twenty-four, but she needs also a well-lighted and properly-heated room where she can work and study. This is much harder to secure, as a teacher must sometimes do her studying in the family sitting room. Every teacher should try to procure a quiet, restful boarding place, and every community owes its teacher this important necessity.

Good Manners. — Another quality essential to success in managing a school is *good manners*. By this it is not implied that memorized rules of etiquette need be ever at command, but rather that every successful teacher must have that inward spirit of kindness and consideration for others which manifests itself in the smallest acts of everyday life. The Great Teacher said: "He that would be greatest among you, let him be the servant of all," and it should be the task of the true teacher to serve efficiently and humbly the whole community. In some parts of the country farm people apply high praise when they remark: "I like the new teacher. She's so *common*." Whether this expression is used in your locality or not, the quality is, no doubt, equally admired.

Rural neighborhoods have customs that differ from those of the cities. In most country communities people

greet one another when they meet in the road, whether they are acquainted or not. It is certainly good manners for the teacher to follow local custom in matters of this sort. One seldom needs to fear being too friendly, but many a teacher has gained unpopularity and consequent trouble in governing her school, because her manner in the community seemed cold, distant, or unfriendly.

Courage. — Every country teacher needs *courage*. It takes real bravery to overcome difficulties and carry out reforms in most rural schools. In many neighborhoods there are patrons who try to dictate the governmental policy of the school, and often there is opposition to modern methods of teaching. Unless a teacher is guided by some stronger motive than self-interest, the courage to withstand such pressure will be lacking. Whenever a teacher lacks courage to control her own school and attempts to follow all the suggestions made by different patrons, the school is doomed to failure. But when a teacher is inspired with faith in her methods and has an earnest desire to serve the pupils of the school, she will have the courage to brave even the conservatism, prejudice, or stinginess of occasional patrons in order to accomplish her duty. Nearly always, when patrons are opposed to new ideas, a teacher can persuade them to await results if she makes a friendly visit and explains the matter. Teachers should always avoid antagonizing patrons unnecessarily, and frequently an explanation of the reasons for introducing something new will prevent antagonism. In making radical changes, a teacher should be very sure of her ground, proceed slowly, tactfully, and cautiously, and then stand up for her principles with firmness and courage.

Enthusiasm. — Another quality essential to every good teacher is *enthusiasm*. An interest that is lukewarm or half-hearted never accomplishes great results. A country school teacher needs an ardent enthusiasm, not only for teaching, but for *rural* teaching. Sometimes young people from the towns go into the country to teach because the school authorities of the town refuse to hire inexperienced teachers. Instead of pitying the rural community, which is thus forced to give them the needed pedagogical training, too often these young teachers pity themselves, because they are forced to travel over muddy roads and endure other inconveniences associated with rural life. Such an attitude will inevitably arouse antagonism and dislike, and the teacher need blame only her own selfishness and narrowness of spirit when she finds difficulty under these conditions in governing her school. The teacher of a rural school, even though reared in town, must fully identify herself with the life and interests of the rural community in which she works. With whole-hearted enthusiasm, she must become so interested in the school that she can teach with genuine zeal and enjoyment. By observation and reading she must gain such a knowledge of rural needs and possibilities as will enable her to acquire a deep and permanent interest in rural life.

Sympathy. — As a basis for the establishment and maintenance of the best school spirit, a teacher must have *sympathy* for her pupils, based upon an understanding of their individual natures and home experiences. Even troublesome pupils must respond to sympathetic understanding and genuine interest. When a teacher has learned the strongest likes and dislikes of

any pupil, the key to that child's guidance and control has been secured. People everywhere respond to true friendliness and a spirit of comradeship, and nowhere is this response more ready and certain than among the pupils and patrons of the rural school.

Summary. — In this chapter the relation has been traced between school management and various qualities of the teacher. The teacher, because she can modify the other factors upon which good management depends, bears the greatest responsibility for school efficiency. Since *personality* is but a vague and indefinite term, a study was made of school management as related to the knowledge of the teacher and her industry, daily preparation, appearance, voice, health, manners, courage, enthusiasm, and sympathy. By the possession and wise use of each of these qualities, the teacher should certainly be able to secure the attention of the pupils and cause them to become so interested in the work of the school that a good school spirit will develop, friction will disappear, and waste will be checked.

EXERCISES

1. Give an illustration of a rural teacher's failure due to want of industry.
2. Have you ever known a teacher to fail in school management because she was lacking in courage? Give full particulars.
3. Give an account of a teacher's success or failure due to her personal appearance.
4. Have you known one teacher to have constant trouble with a school which another easily controlled? Analyze the differences in the two teachers.
5. Write a description of the best managed school you have ever known and the most disorderly; then give the basic reasons for each condition.

6. Is the statement that no one who has not fairly good health is fit to teach school too strong? Justify your answer.
7. Tell a story of some teacher who proved that her trouble with discipline was due to her lack of knowledge or preparation.
8. List the qualities of your favorite teacher in the order of their pedagogic value.
9. Prove or disprove the traditional statement: "Teachers are *born*, not made."

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CHAPTER VI

SCHOOL MANAGEMENT AS RELATED TO THE PUPIL

Physical defects of rural school children

- Defective teeth
- Enlarged tonsils and adenoids
- Defective vision
- Malnutrition
- Fatigue

Provision for the exercise of instincts and interests

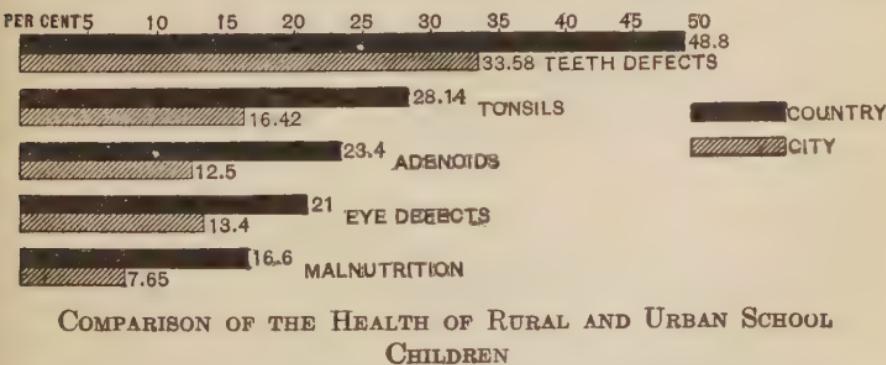
- Curiosity
- Physical activity
- Rivalry
- The fighting instinct
- Mating instinct
- Acquired interests and attitudes
- Implanting new interests

Summary

No pupil can concentrate his attention upon a given task unless he is physically comfortable. Pain always attracts attention to itself and discomfort causes restlessness. It is therefore the duty of the teacher to see that every pupil is comfortable, so that he may work efficiently and not be a menace to the group.

Physical Defects of Rural School Children. — The first requirement for bodily comfort is *health*. The country has, for years, been counted the most healthful of all environments and it should be so. Statistics prove, however, that the health of rural school children has been much neglected. The Roosevelt Commission on

Country Life reported that rural districts all over the United States needed better sanitation, adding: "Easily preventable diseases hold several million country people in the slavery of continuous ill health." Dr. Thomas D. Wood, of Teachers College, Columbia University, made an extensive comparison between the health of city school children and those in rural districts. The facts discovered are contained in the *Proceedings of the National Education Association for 1914*. From this study it appears that of 287,469 school children examined in various parts of New York City, seventy-two per cent were found defective in health, including defects of eyes, ears, and teeth; while of 294,427 school children examined from 1831 different rural districts in Pennsylvania, seventy-five per cent proved to be defective. Children from twenty-five cities were also compared with an equal number from the rural districts of five different states and the percentage of health defects was found to be nearly twice as high among country children as among those in urban centers. The following chart prepared by Dr. Wood for the American Medical



(Chart reproduced with permission from the *Proceedings of the American Medical Association for 1916*.)

Association and published in its *Proceedings for 1916* pictures the comparison of the chief health defects of country and city children from all the statistics then available.

Defective Teeth. — As will be seen from the diagram on page 63, the highest per cent of defects is from bad teeth. Rural children should be taught practical lessons concerning the proper care of the teeth. Samples of dental cream are furnished teachers by some manufacturers for free distribution among pupils. A health club can be organized in which the daily use of the toothbrush is one requirement for honors. The country teacher is frequently called upon to pull the baby teeth of primary pupils, to advise older pupils to visit the dentist, and to administer simple home remedies for the cure of toothache. Every country schoolroom should have a shelf upon which is placed at least a package of sterilized cotton, a roll of gauze bandage, spirits of camphor, and spirits of turpentine. Moreover, no pupil should be expected to attain his usual standard of work or conduct when suffering from toothache. Some of the more progressive states now have dental units which go from school to school. Delaware began this work in 1920 and Baltimore County, Maryland, has realized admirable developments along this line during the last few years.

Enlarged Tonsils and Adenoids. — The duty of the teacher in regard to enlarged tonsils or adenoids is to detect their condition and report to the parents, with any necessary explanation as to the nature of the trouble, the ease with which it may be removed by a skillful surgeon, and the results that will probably follow

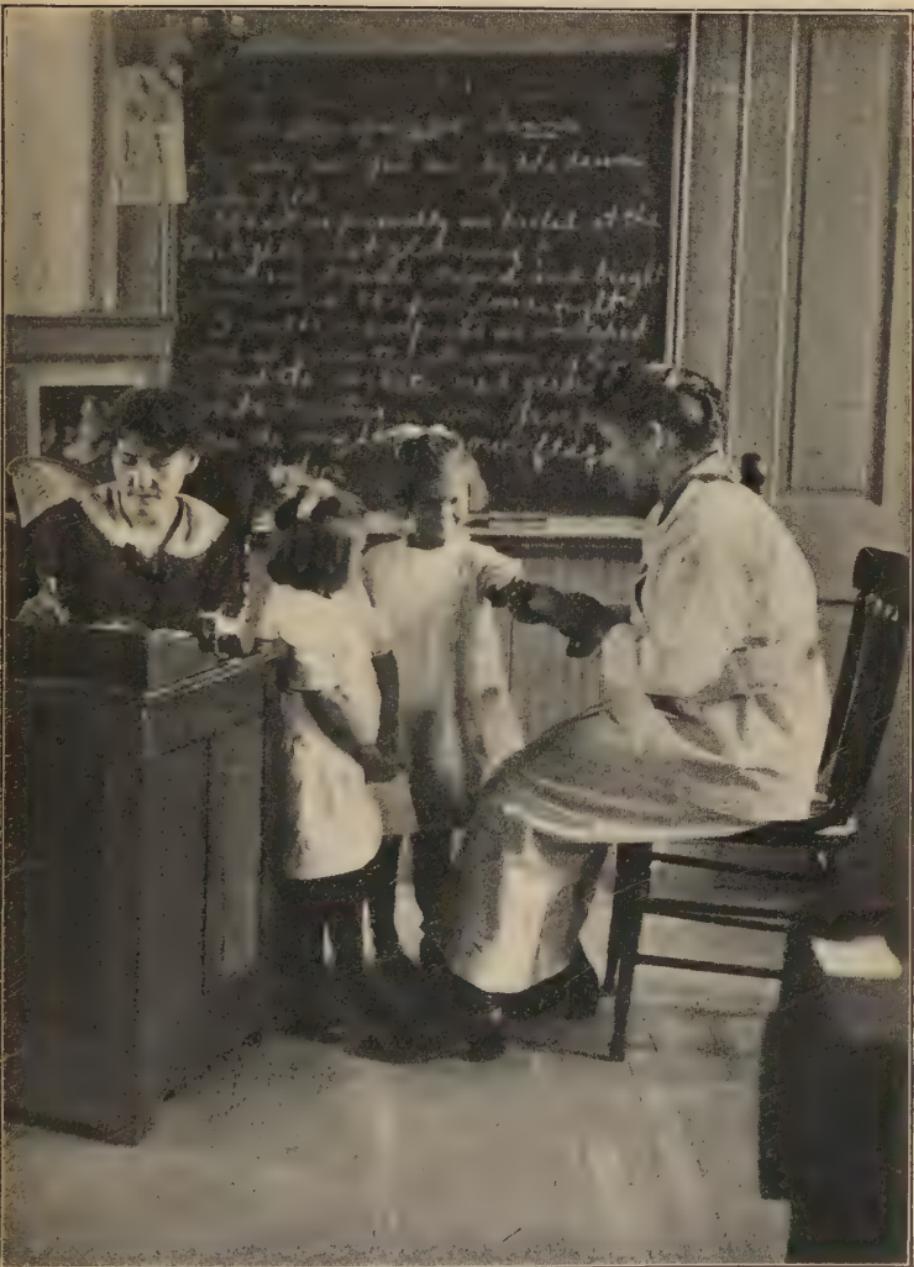
its neglect. Both of these troubles seriously interfere with the learning process by limiting a child's breathing. Any child who is a mouth-breather should be examined for adenoids. These growths frequently cause the upper teeth to protrude, and thus ruin the shape of the face. Very frequently the child who is most troublesome and disorderly will be entirely changed when he has received the needed medical or surgical attention for tonsils and adenoids.

Defective Vision. — Next upon the list of handicaps to physical efficiency is defective eyesight. Since more use is made of seeing in our present scheme of education than of any other of the five senses, any defect of sight is a serious hindrance to a child's progress. Many a pupil has lost all interest in school work because his defective vision caused him to fall behind his class. Discouragement breeds disorder. Every teacher should test the vision of each pupil at least once a year, preferably after the opening of the school term. The necessary card, with directions for this test, will be furnished by the State Board of Health, if the school authorities do not supply it and require the test. Parents should be notified of marked defects, and pupils having defective vision should receive special attention. They should be seated near the blackboard, have well-lighted desks, and be required to do less outside reading than their classmates.

Malnutrition. — In order to make satisfactory progress, both mental and social, pupils must be adequately nourished. It may seem hard for one who is familiar with the abundance of food upon the average farm table to believe that one-sixth of all rural school children

examined were actually suffering from malnutrition, while only half that percentage of city children showed defects due to lack of proper nourishment. Much of the malnutrition found among rural school children may be traced to the fact that nearly half of them have defective teeth. It is probable, however, that most of the trouble is due to eating too hastily, consuming too much, or eating food improperly prepared or combined. Much of the misconduct of pupils is due to discomfort caused by improper feeding. Every country teacher should have a supervised lunch period, and should try to make practical application of the hygiene lessons on food assimilation. There is no lack of nourishing food in the rural districts; hence these children suffer from malnutrition because there is lack of knowledge of the balanced ration. In a later chapter the hot lunch will be discussed. In those states which employ school nurses much of the responsibility in regard to disease conditions is lifted from the teacher. Teachers will need, however, to keep in touch with school nurses and co-operate with them at all times.

Fatigue. — Perhaps the physical discomfort that most frequently forces pupils into unsocial conduct is fatigue. Many primary pupils in country schools form habits of aimless moving about merely because they become tired of sitting still. Motion is natural to little children; almost unceasing motion during the waking hours of early childhood is the law of growth. Besides, they have formed many active habits during the six years preceding school life. To take these tiny tots who have had unhampered freedom all their lives, whose physical growth and welfare demand activity, and put them in



A SCHOOL NURSE AT WORK

Medical inspection as conducted in Renville County, Minnesota, under the leadership of Miss Amalia M. Bengtson, formerly county superintendent of schools.

rigid seats for five hours a day is positive cruelty. There are some one-room schools in which beginners have only four five-minute recitation periods a day and in which no new and interesting seat work is provided. In such schools, these six-year-olds are expected to sit still in uncomfortable seats, often with their feet dangling several inches from the floor, and to be quiet for more than five hours. Of course, they are not quiet, and the fact that they are expected to be makes them dislike the teacher and dread the thought of school. Even with older pupils, the wrong arrangement of the program, the strain due to improperly selected textbooks, poor blackboard, or insufficient lighting; overheated or poorly-ventilated rooms; the attempt to master difficult or uninteresting lessons — all or any of these causes may induce such weariness that restlessness and disorder result. Fatigue fosters friction and is for this reason a foe to order.

Provision for the Exercise of Instincts and Interests.

— As has been said, the physical discomfort of pupils probably produces most of the disorder found in the average rural school. It is not, however, the only cause of friction among children. The spirit of the schoolroom is very directly related to the way in which the school recognizes and develops the instincts of pupils. Instinctive tendencies possess great strength and will produce friction unless provision is made for their proper exercise and training.

Curiosity. — Children, for example, have much curiosity. From the time an intelligent baby begins to talk, it is constantly asking questions. "What is it?" "What is it for?" and "Why?" are repeated countless times.

This instinctive curiosity cannot be suppressed, but it may be trained into a spirit of scientific inquiry which will benefit the world or, if neglected, may become the meddlesome, prying inquisitiveness which is so great a nuisance to both teacher and community. If a school does not offer enough interesting problems to satisfy the natural curiosity of each pupil, the children will find outlets for curiosity which may prove very troublesome. Many a serious bit of mischief has been perpetrated with no other motive than curiosity — "just to see what the teacher would do about it."

Physical Activity. — The instinctive desire for physical activity has already been briefly discussed under health. In *The Evolution of Dodd*, the story is told of the wise teacher who cured a youngster's badness by having him run to a tree and back while she timed him. Provision should be made for a sufficient amount of physical activity to rest tired muscles and brains, if the school is to do efficient work. To meet this need modern schools have introduced carefully planned instruction in physical education.

Rivalry. — The instinct of rivalry is another frequent cause of trouble. Two harmless ways of redirecting this instinct are: to have each pupil compete against his own former achievements, and to substitute group competition for personal rivalry. Teamwork in athletics is valuable for this reason. It makes a pupil subordinate personal success to school spirit, and thus fits him for coöperative labor later in life. As pupils grow older, the group should become larger, until school spirit grows into patriotism and finally enlarges into the ideal of the brotherhood of man.

The Fighting Instinct. — The fighting instinct is often manifested in ways that mar the work of the school. This instinct should be directed against the evils that are a menace to rural life and to society at large. Pupils should be taught how to fight the spread of disease, how to war against the natural forces that hinder the growth of crops, and how to attack evil in all its forms. We need more stories of the heroic deeds of doctors, missionaries, pioneers, farmers, and other brave men and women who have engaged in constructive labor. We must perforce admire military heroes, but it is a great mistake to let children think that soldiers are the only heroes.

Mating Instinct. — Another instinct that frequently causes disturbance in schools is the mating or sex instinct. When boys are afflicted with "calf love" and girls become "boy crazy," teachers often have trouble with school management. Dr. G. Stanley Hall, a recognized authority upon the psychology of the adolescent youth, claims that this instinct is very easily transferred. These young people need much work in history and literature that will arouse high ideals and pure emotions. They need much physical activity, also, including games, athletics, hikes, and other vigorous outdoor exercise. Above all they need the constant companionship of a sympathetic comrade who is older and wiser than themselves.

Acquired Interests and Attitudes. — The school must not only make provision for the exercise and direction of the pupil's instincts, but must also take account of each child's acquired tastes, interests, and attitudes. In many isolated rural districts prejudices and antagonisms are often deeply rooted in children as well as adults.

Trouble over the location of a schoolhouse or the building of a line fence may cause an antagonism between families that will make trouble in local school management for years afterward. Even one pupil who has the wrong attitude toward the school, the teacher, some of the other pupils, or some subject taught, may cause great difficulty in school government.

Implanting New Interests. — But, while it is generally conceded that prejudices are much more deeply rooted in rural districts than in towns, the country teacher has many more opportunities than the urban teacher to become really acquainted with her pupils. The number of pupils enrolled is so much smaller and the social life so much simpler that, if genuine effort is made, the real interests and strong tendencies of each pupil may be readily learned. Frequently, new interests can be implanted strong enough to replace the undesirable ones entirely. At least, the teacher need arouse no antagonism toward herself by offending local prejudices, if she really studies her community. The wise teacher will strive especially to learn the interests and tendencies of her most troublesome pupils, in order that she may arouse new interests in line with the work of the school. By approaching pupils upon their present level of appreciation, they may be directed and guided into interests of a higher type.

The task of creating new interests and replacing wrong attitudes is easier in the country, also, for two reasons. In the first place, rural children do not differ so widely in tastes and interests as do the children of city schools. Most rural school children come from farm homes, neither extremely wealthy nor very poor. Most

of them have had very similar experiences, hence have much the same general tastes and tendencies. The second advantage is that their lives have been so narrow in many instances that any new interest is a break in the monotony and is therefore welcomed.

The teacher, however, who desires to create an ideal school spirit among her pupils, must not enter upon the task with any feeling of arrogance. She must not feel in any sense better than these plainly clad children of the farms because of her superior advantages or broader outlook. These boys and girls have a native independence that will not endure a patronizing attitude. They are sincere and can be won to loyalty and earnest endeavor through sincerity alone. The ideal rural teacher must understand country children. Then she can bring to them many interests that will brighten and enrich their lives. When pupils are thoroughly interested in the work of the school and have the right attitude of loyalty toward the teacher, they give her their help and coöperation in unstinted measure.

Summary.—Good school management is very directly related to the health and comfort of the pupils in the school. In order to secure the best conduct and build up an ideal school spirit, the teacher must know the instinctive tendencies of her pupils and provide for the exercise or redirection of these tendencies. Individual tastes, attitudes, and other acquired tendencies must also be learned and provided for in the teacher's governmental policy. Only by sincere sympathy and earnest effort can a teacher secure from each pupil the loyal coöperation essential to the best school management.

EXERCISES

1. Give an example of a child's being punished for naughtiness, when the cause of his misconduct was defective health.
2. Prove that discomfort causes impoliteness and other improper conduct among adults.
3. Show how discouragement may alter the conduct of a pupil.
4. Outline the plea you would make to a mother for surgical treatment to remove adenoids seriously handicapping a nine-year-old pupil.
5. Plan a series of lessons upon food to be used after the school nurse has reported that five of your twenty-two pupils are very much under weight. What practical application of these lessons can you make?
6. Test the sight and hearing of a group of children; and assuming that this examination reveals some serious defects, state exactly how you would proceed to remedy the matter.
7. Relate an incident concerning misconduct due to instinctive tendencies.
8. Have you ever known the order of a school to be seriously affected by the wrong attitude of a single pupil or the pupils of one family? Tell the story fully.
9. Give lesson titles and pupils' aims for three widely varying lessons, alike only in the fact that the pupils' aim may well be based upon instinctive curiosity.
10. Show how group tests and school comparisons make personal competition less keen and bitter.

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CHAPTER VII

THE SCHOOLROOM AS RELATED TO SCHOOL MANAGEMENT

Unsanitary rural schools

Some essentials of schoolroom sanitation

Heat

Light

Ventilation

Cleanliness

Seats

The social value of beauty

Moral value of beauty

Summary

The schoolroom has a direct and powerful influence upon the efficiency and progress of the school, dependent upon the way in which it ministers to health and beauty. In order to fulfill its mission as a healthful place in which to work, the room must be properly heated, lighted, aired, cleaned, and equipped with suitable seats.

Unsanitary Rural Schools. — Many states have recently made surveys of rural school conditions, but none of quite such wide scope has been conducted as that made by Dr. F. B. Dresslar in 1912 for the National Education Association. This report, which was based upon rural school conditions in nineteen states, showed the following startling facts: Less than forty per cent of the schools had enough window area; less than two per cent were lighted from one side; about one per cent had sanitary toilets; only twenty-five per cent used

sanitary methods of cleaning; about sixty per cent were heated by unjacketed stoves; two-thirds of the schools had no thermometer, and about half were still using the common drinking cup.

A statistical study of the public schools of the Southern Appalachian Mountains, made by Professor Norman Frost, Peabody College, Nashville, Tennessee, and published by the Bureau of Education in 1915, gives the average values of school buildings in this region. About seventy-five per cent are worth less than \$1000; nearly sixty per cent are valued at \$700 or less; and fifteen per cent represent an investment ranging from \$300 to less than \$100. Most of these buildings, valued at such low figures, must be unhygienic.

Even more recent investigations of rural schools show that there is still great lack of proper sanitation. A survey of the schools of Delaware, made by Professor George D. Strayer of Teachers College, Columbia University, and his assistants in October, 1919, revealed the following conditions: Fifty per cent of the class-rooms had less than the standard amount of glass area; thirty per cent of the one-to-four-room buildings were of the store-box type, without vestibules, and with windows on two or three sides; forty-six per cent of the one-to-four-teacher schools were heated by old-fashioned wood or coal stoves; the chief cleaning equipment was corn brooms, usually much worn, with no provision for dusting; the typical school had a pump with a common drinking cup and an occasional wash basin; double seats far outnumbered single, and there were very few adjustable desks; roofs needed repairing in many instances; and the toilets were often found to be "tumble-

down, foul outbuildings." Similar conditions have been revealed by surveys in other states also, notably in Virginia, Alabama, Missouri, and New York.

Dr. Thomas D. Wood in an article published in *School and Society* for October, 1915, says:

The rural school, from the standpoint of health and general fitness for its important use, is the worst type of building in the whole country, including not only all types of buildings used for human beings, but also those for live stock and for all domestic animals. Rural schools are, on the average, less adequate for their use than prisons, asylums, almshouses, stables, dairy barns, pig pens, chicken houses, and dog-kennels are for their uses.

This constitutes a stinging indictment of the American rural school, but it is well substantiated by facts.

Some Essentials of Schoolroom Sanitation: Heat. — A schoolroom, to be well managed, must be properly heated. An unjacketed stove, placed in the center of the room, means that those children sitting near the stove are too hot, while those in the corners are too cold. Much disorder and waste of time may be caused in schools so heated by permitting pupils to move to the stove and sit around it to warm their feet.

There are four different ways by which a teacher may remedy this condition. First she should have a knowledge of the best and least expensive method of heating the room and should make an effort to have the stove moved and jacketed before cold weather. Then the air can be moistened by keeping a vessel of water upon the top of the stove. The room can be ventilated as thoroughly as possible and filled with fresh air at all intermissions, since fresh air heats more easily and quickly than impure air. Furthermore, the teacher can

have frequent rest periods between classes when pupils are permitted to move to and from the fire, thus avoiding interruption while classes are reciting.

Light. — It is almost impossible to secure proper lighting when windows are on two sides of the room, and it is manifestly impossible to secure enough light when there is not sufficient window space, still much can be done to improve present conditions. There are schools where no shades have been provided for the windows. If the teacher knows the best kind of adjustable shades, she can see that these are secured. The area of the glass in the windows should be at least one-fifth of the floor space. Where the room is insufficiently lighted, the shade rollers should be lowered at least eighteen inches from the top of the windows and the ceiling should be painted white and the walls a light tan. Sometimes it makes the room lighter to have glass put in the upper part of the outside doors in the rear of the room. Because of the increased difficulty of interesting and controlling a roomful of children on a dark, stormy day, experienced teachers realize that there is very direct relation between light and order. It is certainly worth the teacher's time and effort to make the lighting of the schoolroom as nearly ideal as possible.

Ventilation. — Friction in school management is very frequently caused by forcing pupils to breathe impure air. The Board of Health of the State of New York claims that forty per cent of all deaths may be traced to the effects of a lack of pure air. The teacher must see that the room in which she works is well ventilated. The air of the average country schoolroom gathers impurities from many sources. The breathing of the



A NEW TYPE OF ONE-TEACHER SCHOOL BUILDING
Rural school for colored children at Christiana, Delaware

pupils, ashes from the stove, chalk dust, and dust from the muddy floor, all help to make the average rural schoolroom absolutely unsafe shortly after the first session begins. When a coal-stove is consuming oxygen, also, the condition is even worse. It is then imperative that a supply of fresh air be admitted to the room.

There are several methods of jacketing stoves that insure adequate ventilation. One of these should be adopted, but until the jacketed stove is installed, and even afterward, the room should be ventilated by using the windows. The windows can be lowered six inches from the top and a slanting board placed before the opening to prevent direct drafts. In very severe weather a board placed beneath the lower sash will permit some air to enter without undue discomfort. Frequent intermissions should also be given in which the pupils have marching or gymnastic exercises while all windows are raised and the door opened. It may seem foolish to take the time for this when the program is so crowded, but experience will prove that enough more work is done when the blood is cleansed with pure air to make up for lost time, to say nothing of the gain in health.

Cleanliness. — The problem of keeping the country schoolroom so neat and clean that it will be both healthful and attractive is one of extreme difficulty. Many hindrances are in the way, as mud, coal dust, ashes, chalk dust, crumbs from noon lunches, rough and poorly finished floors, and traditional ideas, including the belief in the sufficiency of an annual scrubbing. These difficulties must be met and overcome if the teacher wishes to have an orderly school, because a clean room is an essential to good management.

Seats. — The time is surely coming soon when the world will consider it a crime to confine young children for long periods a day in uncomfortable seats. But even with the needed reforms in school methods and subject matter, it must be assumed that much of the child's school work will still be done at his desk during the teaching life of most rural teachers. If teachers are so ignorant or careless that seats are not fitted to the pupils occupying them, round shoulders, curved spines, and sunken chests are the inevitable result.

The vertical distance of the desk above the seat should be one-sixth of the child's height, and the width of the seat should be about one-fifth of the child's height. The seat should be high enough for the feet to rest upon the floor without raising the knees. A line dropped from the edge of the desk to the floor should overlap the front edge of the seat an inch or two. Seats should be adjustable or should at least vary sufficiently to provide every child with a seat about the proper size. In case a pupil must sit in a seat too high, the teacher should procure a block or box for a footrest and furnish extra occupation at the blackboard and sand table. Some form of movable seat has been found very satisfactory in rural school buildings intended partly for social center purposes as well as for regular school use, and several of these are as nearly ideal as any school seat yet made.

In addition to the permanent seats, every country school should be provided with two sizes of kindergarten chairs for primary pupils to use when grouped for recitation or when working at the kindergarten table, and also with a few other chairs for use at the reading table.

In *The Teacher and the School*, C. P. Colgrove says:

Throughout this discussion the teacher's responsibility for the general care and cleanliness of the schoolroom has been emphasized. Others may shirk their duty, but the teacher must not make this an excuse for shirking his duty. His own health is at stake, as well as that of his pupils. It may be difficult at first for a new teacher to gain the active coöperation of the parents or even of the school officers, but an earnest, tactful teacher can always enlist the cheerful assistance of the pupils in improving the schoolroom and its surroundings. The erasers should be kept clean, the desks free from dirt, the stove polished, the windows washed, the floor scrubbed and always free from litter, the books in order when not in use, all apparatus in its place, and the school premises free from ashes and rubbish. The teacher who keeps the schoolroom shiftlessly will be justly suspected of shiftless teaching. (P. 199.)

An energetic teacher can use some very definite means of keeping the schoolroom in a condition of healthful cleanliness. Any teacher can have scrapers, properly protected, and husk mats and can see that the pupils clean their feet thoroughly before entering the room. If the trustees have not properly attended to the matter, the help of pupils can be secured for a thorough preliminary cleaning of the building. Walks of some sort should be built before muddy weather, if possible. A watchful care should be exercised to keep the room clean every day — a care that will never permit pupils to litter the floor with paper or food scraps. Teachers must usually oversee the work of the rural janitor and often supplement his labor. Finally, a definite connection should be made between the hygiene lessons on pure air and the evils of disease germs, and the practice of keeping the schoolroom clean and well ventilated.

The Social Value of Beauty. — There is a disposition among average American farm people to be too practical. Too many farmers build and furnish their homes with little or no thought of beauty, thinking only of cost and wearing qualities. Rural schools should possess beauty in order that farm homes may become more beautiful. The Report of the Committee of Twelve justly says:

The true test of our civilization is the kind of home we are willing to live in, and the influence of our schools should help to form a disposition for those things that make home life happy and healthy. . . . Day by day beautiful, comfortable, and clean surroundings will have their ethical effect upon the pupil's development, until he comes in time to abhor anything that is not beautiful, well-ordered, and clean. . . . When pupils grow up and have homes of their own they must have them clean, neat, bright with pictures, and fringed with shade trees and flowers, for they have been brought up to be happy in no other environment.

A chief reason for the desertion of the farm by country boys and girls is the desire for pleasure. One of the strongest and purest pleasures in the world is found in the enjoyment and appreciation of beauty. Beauty in the world of nature lies all about the country child, but very often he fails to enjoy this beauty, because he has never been trained to see it. This training in the appreciation of beauty has been too long neglected in our rural schools. All schoolrooms, in their furnishing and general appearance, should minister to the love of the beautiful.

Moral Value of Beauty. — But, while "beauty is its own excuse for being," beautiful surroundings are constantly improving the morals of those who live among them. Great is the power of suggestion; and the clean, orderly, beautiful room silently suggests clean, orderly,



A PLEASING RURAL SCHOOL INTERIOR

One of the modern rural school buildings recently erected in Delaware.

beautiful thoughts and conduct. Just as filth and ugliness are debasing, so cleanliness and beauty are moral agencies essential in all real education.

Every teacher can see that his schoolroom possesses the beauty of cleanliness and order, and that no disfiguring, cheap chromos are tacked upon the walls. The progressive, influential teacher can usually have the walls and ceilings painted or papered in harmonious neutral tints, the ceiling lighter than the walls. The two color combinations that are always perfectly safe are tan walls with cream ceiling, if the room has a northern exposure, and gray walls with white ceiling, if it has a southern exposure. Then, most teachers can secure one good picture or, at least, arouse interest in the matter and start a fund for the purchase of such a masterpiece. An appreciative teacher can also point out the beauty in the flowers, ferns, native berries, and other beautiful plants in the fields and woods about the building, and use these as decorations for the schoolroom. Through inexpensive prints a study of good pictures and of the artists who painted them is now made easily possible also. Such picture study may well precede the selection and purchase of the few large pictures that will later adorn the walls. Ideal school spirit will be much more easily secured and maintained amid surroundings that are healthful, comfortable, and beautiful.

Summary. — Teachers and pupils are not the only factors in school management. The room itself affects the conduct and progress of its inmates in proportion to its effect upon health, comfort, cleanliness, and beauty. The factors that make a schoolroom healthful were

listed as heating, lighting, ventilation, cleaning, and seating. Two other essential factors that have been excluded from this chapter are pure drinking water and sanitary toilets. These are omitted, not because they lack vital importance, but because, as the rural school now exists, they are not directly connected with the schoolroom. They will be studied, therefore, in connection with the playground. The beauty and orderly appearance of the schoolroom have an effect upon the present conduct of the pupils and tend also to foster ideals that are valuable.

EXERCISES

1. Point out the defects in heating, lighting, ventilating, seating, or cleaning some rural school, briefly stating how you would deal with each condition.
2. Find out the number of absences in your school last term, calculate the percentage due to illness, and make an estimate as to how much of this illness was preventable.
3. Make a list of health posters to be made by the children of your school. These may be illustrated by pictures cut from the advertising pages of magazines.
4. What can a teacher do to make the school environment more sanitary without expense to the district? Does the responsibility of the teacher end here?
5. Plan a good health program for a parent-teachers' meeting, giving three sources from which material may be secured.
6. State some of the difficulties you would be prepared to encounter in beautifying a rural school, together with your plans for overcoming them.
7. Bring to class a written list of five steps in beautifying a rural school that can be achieved by the teacher and pupils alone; also five that would require community coöperation.
8. Suggest ways of making the community aware of the ugly features connected with the school premises, and aware also of means for improving school surroundings.

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CHAPTER VIII

SCHOOL MANAGEMENT AND THE COURSE OF STUDY

Causes of inattention

Transfer of training

Moral strength

Fitting the course of study to the school

Supplementary material

Omission of unsuited portions

Knowledge of various courses of study

Knowledge of the community

Subjects to be stressed in rural schools

Nature study

Home economics

Practical sanitation

Music and art

Literature

Geography and history

Traditional subject matter

Summary

Since a well-managed school is one in which each pupil is constantly attending to the work at hand and since undivided attention can be secured only through interest, it follows that in the ideal school each pupil is really interested in all the work to be done. This sort of attentive interest from all pupils is rarely found, but through a brief study of the causes of inattention, teachers should be able to make their schools more nearly approach the ideal.

Causes of Inattention. — There is no question but that one of the most powerful causes for inattention and

disorder in the school is the physical discomfort of the pupils. This matter has already been discussed, however, and needs but brief mention here. Suffice it to say that the physical welfare of the child must be attended to first, because he must be free from the distraction due to pain or discomfort before he can become attentive and interested. Moreover, any observant teacher knows that a single inattentive, uninterested pupil may ruin the presentation of a lesson by marring the teacher's poise and making other pupils inattentive.

Next to the disorder caused by physical discomfort and poor teaching, the most troublesome cause of inattention is probably found in the course of study. Interest is largely based on knowledge, and one of the most important principles of good teaching is: "Proceed from the known to the related unknown." Much of the material now taught in our schools, however, is neither based upon the previous knowledge of the pupil nor directly related to his interests.

Transfer of Training. — The question may well be asked: "If the material is not interesting to the pupils, nor vitally related to their lives and previous knowledge, why has it been introduced into the courses of study?" Most of the material thus found became a part of the course of study years ago because of educational beliefs now outgrown. One of these doctrines is called *the transfer of training*. Educators used to believe and teach that the mind developed by exercise, much as muscles do; that if we did hard mental work, we developed mental power that we could use in the solution of any of the problems of life. But modern experiments

in psychology have proved this doctrine to be largely untrue. The reasoning power developed by working for a long time with one kind of problems has been shown to be practically useless in solving problems of a different type. The college professor must have thinking ability, but he is often a notoriously poor business man. The blacksmith builds up great strength of arm, but that alone will never make him a skillful piano player. Just as muscles need special training and practice for tasks that involve skill, so the mind needs much special training for its work. There can be transfer of training only where there is similarity of the method of working, or likeness in the materials to be used. Children must be taught to think by studying useful material. They must be trained in needed habits. Hence, many parts of the courses of study introduced with this idea of developing general power have now been dropped. Examples of work rendered useless by discarding this idea of transfer of training and now omitted from modern courses of study are: The casting out of nines, allegation, and kindred subjects from arithmetic; involved analysis and parsing from grammar; the location of unimportant towns and cities from geography; and detailed anatomy from hygiene.

Moral Strength.—Another idea which influenced the selection of some material now found in our course of study was that pupils gained in moral strength from doing tasks that were distasteful and consequently uninteresting. Modern educators believe that there is enough routine work essential to life to give this moral training. Even when thoroughly interested in a useful task some parts of it may be distasteful. If we have a

strong aim and incentive, these distasteful parts are completed more easily and quickly than they would be otherwise. Real work is essential to moral growth, but aimless drudgery is not real work.

Fitting the Course of Study to the School. — But while the average teacher may agree that some parts of the course of study are almost useless and decidedly uninteresting, she often feels powerless to change the situation. It is true that the individual teacher usually has very little voice in making courses of study for our schools to-day; and, that in large city systems, a grade teacher may be seriously hampered by a detailed course of study. The teacher of the country school has here a decided advantage. The course of study for rural schools is not outlined in so detailed a manner, and its supervision is not so close. For this reason there is more opportunity to fit the work to the needs of the school. Moreover, a crowded program means that there must be a combination of classes and a correlation of subjects, and these make work more interesting. In very crowded programs there must be some eliminations, and this means usually the omission of the least useful and least interesting parts. Thus the very disadvantages of the one-teacher program become advantages when it comes to fitting the course of study to the school.

Another decided advantage of the rural school accrues from the fact that the pupils have had much the same previous experience and knowledge. Most rural schools are made up of the sons and daughters of farmers. Many of them have lived all their lives in the immediate community. They know the same people and the same processes of work; they have played the same games

and are familiar with the same local places of interest; their home life is similar and the life they lead outside the schoolroom is more uniform. It is thus much easier to determine "the known" and the "related unknown" for such a group than for a city class with its wide variations and exceptions.

There is little doubt but that most states need an entirely new course of study for elementary schools both urban and rural, or, rather, type courses of study, one of which can be selected by the local school supervisor as best adapted to the needs of the children. Until such a reform is complete, however, there are certain adaptations of the course left in the hands of the individual teacher, who by fitting the work to local needs may make surprising changes in content.

Supplementary Material. — One way of managing to fit the course of study to the school is by the wise use of supplementary reading material. Most readers are written for city children chiefly, but after pupils have learned to read fairly well, they can gain skill in reading from any easy material. The use of such books as Schwartz's *Grasshopper Green's Garden*, or Dopp's *Tree Dwellers*, as supplementary readers for intermediate grades, or of books like Smith's *Our Neighborhood* or Allen's *North America* in the upper grades makes a great change in the character of the subject matter studied, though no change in the name of the study. Care should be taken, however, to see that this material is restricted to supplementary uses and not permitted to displace real literature.

Omission of Unsuited Portions. — Another method of altering the course of study is by omitting portions

of the text which are unrelated to the lives of the pupils and substituting material of more vital interest. For example, the textbook in agriculture once adopted in a central state discussed the raising of cotton in great detail. Since cotton could not be raised in this state, the wise rural teacher omitted such portions, and, following an outline furnished by the state university, supplemented the book through the use of bulletins on the raising of cattle and sheep, the construction of silos, and other topics of local application.

A third way of fitting the course of study to the school is through the use of textbooks written for country children in all subjects possible. Since a study is not just facts, but facts brought into relation to life, a textbook such as Field and Nearing's *Community Civics* is a much better book for teaching civics to farm children than one which makes no reference to country life. But precaution should be taken in all such texts to see that the minimum essentials of the general elementary curriculum are properly covered, and that the variable elements introduced become only a means of interpreting the regular basic subject matter of the elementary school to country children.

Knowledge of Various Courses of Study. — In this work of adapting the course of study to rural child needs, the teacher will find the study of different state manuals of great help. Each teacher may think her own state has one of the best and most suggestive elementary courses published. But even if this be true a study of several others will enable her to see its good points more clearly. Moreover, by learning what other states expect their rural schools to do, helpful suggestions will probably be

found. (For a recommended list of such manuals, see the Appendix, Section X.)

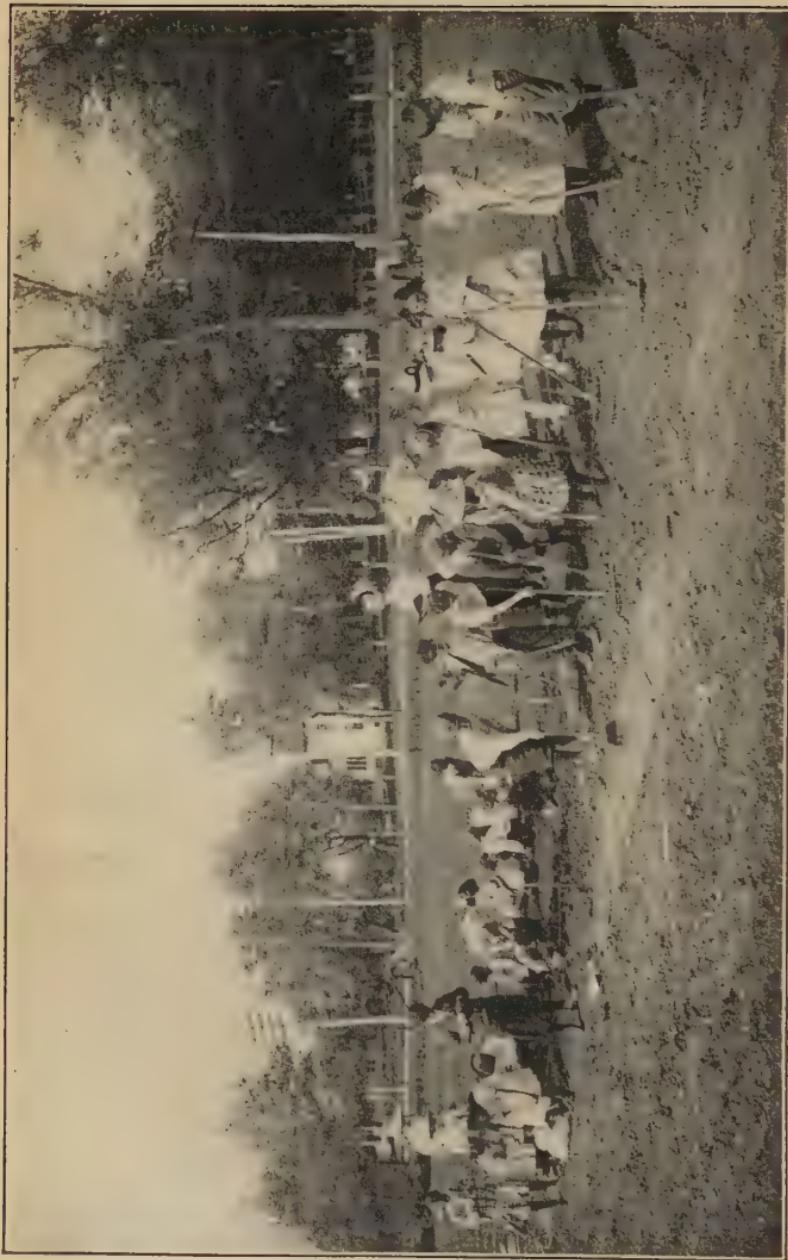
Knowledge of the Community. — Of course, before the school work can be fitted to a local group of children, the teacher must know the neighborhood in which these children live. This means that the teacher, to do successful work, must stay more than one term as teacher of a school. Some progress can be realized the first year, but more time is needed to produce permanent and vital results. Let each teacher find a school to her liking, therefore, where the people appreciate hard work and high ideals, and remain sufficiently long to make an impression upon the childhood of the community.

Subjects to be Stressed in Rural Schools. — In order that the lessons studied day by day may improve the conduct of the pupils, the subject matter must be more interesting than mischief. To be of vital interest, lessons must meet the real needs of the pupils and be connected with their lives. This means that schools must spend more time upon projects and processes, and do less textbook work. Rural children need more directed observation, more industrial arts, and more practical application of the older subjects to the needs of present-day living.

Nature Study. — Nature study is a subject in which most children can always be interested and which can be especially well taught in rural schools, because the material for observation is abundant and convenient. A deep reverence for the wonder and beauty of nature should be implanted in every rural pupil, because it gives present enjoyment and trains in certain habits of observation and appreciation that should become a

SCHOOL GARDENING AT NORMAL, ILLINOIS

Fourth-grade children in the Training School of the Illinois State Normal University preparing their garden under the direction of Miss Alice Jean Patterson, Nature Study Specialist of the Normal School staff.



permanent enrichment to every life. An intelligent interest in birds, butterflies, flowers, ferns, mosses, and trees does much to remove the monotony of farm life. Many rural schools have meager library facilities, and no access to museums or art galleries. Unless these children are taught to find "sermons in stones, books in the running brooks," their environment has deprived them of valuable material for aesthetic growth without furnishing compensation for this loss.

Nature study in rural schools should be a laboratory subject. Books containing accurate and scientific information should be accessible, to supplement direct observation, but they can never successfully supplant the more direct and scientific method. The rural school library should contain many good nature books but no sentimental "nature faking" trash. Rural school pupils, through the directed, continuous observation of nature, should have a basis of appreciation for the genuine, and an ability to detect the false and discordant note in books written by people without scientific knowledge or deep understanding of this great subject. No study in the rural school curriculum is so well designed to foster observation, and intelligent observation directed by genuine interest is an excellent foundation for all the natural sciences, with some one of which every educated adult is expected to be at least slightly acquainted.

Home Economics. — The rural school should also give girls an intelligent interest in the work of the home. Girls from the fifth to the eighth grades are at the stage of development when such interest can be easily aroused. Through coöperation with the junior extension leader they should be taught some sewing, something of the

selection, care, combination, preparation and serving of foods and some household sanitation and decoration. There is great opportunity here for coöordinating the work of the school with that of the home and thus gaining the coöperation of the mothers.

Practical Sanitation. — Rural schools should cease to teach most of the traditional subject of physiology and give pupils the benefit of practical training in hygiene and sanitation. The pupils should learn how to keep well, how to be sure that their homes are healthful, and how to make their neighborhood sanitary. They should learn how drinking water becomes contaminated, and how to be certain that their supply is not tainted. In fact rural sanitation should be so vitally taught now that the next generation may find rural life as healthful as any mode of living.

Music and Art. — Music and art should be taught in all rural schools. Every country child should have as good an opportunity to profit by these refining arts as his city cousins. A practical means for cultivating an appreciation for music may be realized through the use of the Victrola or similar instrument. Children should be taught to sing also. Music will quickly clear the atmosphere when disorder appears. This is especially true when the friction is due to fatigue. The singing of a rousing marching song, while the windows are open, is an excellent form of recreation. As the world's great music must reach rural children largely through well-selected records, so painting must be studied largely through reproductions. In neither case can results be so satisfactory as with those favored individuals who from early childhood have been able to hear operas and

symphonies, and have roamed for days through great art galleries with teachers who could point out the beauty of painting and statue and explain their symbolism. But because one cannot have the best is no excuse for rejecting the next best. If a teacher herself possesses a genuine appreciation for the truly beautiful and enduring in music, painting, and sculpture, she can do much toward arousing like interests and tastes in her pupils.

Literature. — There is great need for the better teaching of literature in rural schools. Country children need to become familiar with literary classics of many varied types. They should be taught nature poems and introduced widely to good literature that idealizes life. Such poems as Whittier's *Barefoot Boy*, Wordsworth's *Daffodils*, Bryant's *Lines to a Waterfowl*, Holmes' *Chambered Nautilus*, and Joaquin Miller's *Columbus* should be loved and committed to memory. While it is by no means desirable that all literature for country children should be confined to that dealing with rural life, this study like others should begin with the known world — the world of nature — and keep this interest as a dominant note.

Geography and History. — Geography and history should deal more with the social and industrial life of the people both present and past and less with the lifeless, uninteresting names of places and men — names that to most pupils are merely words to be learned. Through the study of these subjects the lonely, isolated country boy or girl should become conscious of the fact that he is a citizen of a great nation which bears a vital relation to other great countries of the world, and that

he is a part of a magnificent civilization that has had its beginnings far in the past and leads on to a wonderful future.

Traditional Subject Matter. — None of the older subjects omitted from this discussion should be neglected. But lessons which have been mechanical tasks must become problems and projects full of interest and value before the course of study can do its part toward promoting the ideal school spirit.

Summary. — Chapter VIII has discussed the course of study as one element to be mastered in the efficient management of a rural school. Since attention is commanded by interest, school lessons must be interesting in a well-managed school. Only when school work bears a direct relation to the previous knowledge and present needs of the child can it possess an attraction sufficiently strong to claim his undivided attention. The work done in school must, therefore, be more closely related to the life of the pupils. Rural schools should lay special stress upon nature study, music and art, practical sanitation, and industrial arts. The older subject should not be neglected, but must be given social content and a "rural slant."

EXERCISES

1. Have you ever known a child who seemed bright and capable when he first entered school to become dull and disorderly after a few years? Could the course of study be blamed for this?
2. Relate an instance showing how music had a good effect upon the order of a school.
3. If the rural teacher has no knowledge of nature, should she omit all work in nature study? If not, how should she proceed?
4. Show how the geography you studied in the rural school lacked vital interest. State three problems in teaching the geography

of South America that should possess such interest for a farm child.

5. Make a plan for some industrial arts work that may be done in rural schools without neglecting other subjects.

6. Tell of some successful attempts you have known in reorganizing the rural school course of study.

7. List three songs that every school child should know, and three pictures you would select for your school to study.

8. List some of the facts and processes upon which you spent much time in school that have never been needed outside the school-room.

9. Plan a history pageant that will involve some facts in the local history of your school community.

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CHAPTER IX

THE RURAL SCHOOL PROGRAM

- Importance of a good school program
- Chief fault in rural school programs
- Reducing the number of classes
 - Combination
 - Alternation
 - Correlation
 - Elimination
- Satisfactory number of classes
- Sequence of classes
- Time allotments
- Study periods
- Suggestive program
- Following the program
- Summary

Importance of a Good School Program. — The making and following of a good program is always an important factor in the success of an efficient teacher. In many cases, the wise readjustment of classes by an expert supervisor has saved an inexperienced teacher from failure. Nowhere is the making of a good school program so hard as in the one-teacher school, and nowhere is there less expert supervision to protect the young teacher from her blunders. Since the number of grades and the number of pupils in each grade vary so widely, no one program can be made to fit all rural schools. For this reason teachers must learn some of the most important principles underlying program making,

in order that they may intelligently adapt a model program to fit the individual school.

Chief Fault in Rural School Programs. — The greatest fault in the rural program is in the large number of classes reciting daily. In a bulletin on *The Emergency in Rural Education*, issued by the National Education Association in 1918, the following statement is made: "About eighty per cent of the rural schools are one-teacher schools with required instruction in seven or eight grades, with from twenty-five to thirty-five daily recitations, and with an average recitation period of from ten to fifteen minutes."

The most inexperienced teacher can easily see that ten minutes is not nearly enough time for the teaching of a class, especially an advanced class in history or literature. How to obtain more time for advanced classes without robbing the primary pupils is indeed a problem — one that most rural teachers fail to solve satisfactorily.

Reducing the Number of Classes. — There are four basic principles which will aid the teacher in reducing the number of classes. These are: combination, alternation, correlation, and elimination.

Combination. — The principle of *combination* may be applied in two ways. First, several grades may be combined into one class for the study of a single subject. Second, two or more subjects may be combined in a single class period.

For the first sort of combination reading is one of the most available subjects. After the second year of reading has been well taught, several different grades will be interested in the same books. Much valuable

time can then be saved in country schools by having less reading done in the adopted readers, and combining several classes into one group to read supplementary readers at least once a day.

The pupils of rural schools spend much of their time reciting oral reading, yet, as a rule, read very poorly. Part of this poor, monotonous reading is doubtless due to the unskillful teaching, but much of the failure to read with expression is caused by the frequently repeated reading of lessons, none too interesting even when fresh. Many a country pupil reads twice a day for two or more terms from one second reader of two hundred pages—a reader whose stories he has heard read while in the primer and first reader classes. A set of new supplementary books, read in a combined class, will thus add wonderfully to the interest as well as lessen the number of daily recitations.

But children need to be trained in silent reading, even more than in reading aloud. They should be taught to get the thought from a printed page rapidly and accurately, and to be able to repeat this thought in their own words. Such reading may well be combined with some other subject, as nature study, hygiene, geography, or history. If, instead of having two pupils stumble through some standard fifth reader, three reading in a fourth reader, and four in a third, a class of nine reads for thought from Gulick's *Good Health*, Chaffee's *Twinkly Eyes*, or Chamberlain's *How We Are Fed*, the teacher uses the second form of combination. By thus combining reading with hygiene, nature study, or geography, the number of classes is reduced and the time for the recitation is increased. Then, too, the

larger number of pupils in the class and the novelty of the material add zest to the work, giving a third distinct gain.

Another practice which might be called a form of combination is that of calling two classes at the same period, but having them recite separate lessons. For example, the fourth and fifth grade arithmetic classes may come upon the program at the same half-hour period. Then one class may be assigned blackboard work, while the other has oral problems from another part of the book. Under this plan the teacher's attention must be somewhat divided, but the lengthened recitation period will more than offset this disadvantage.

Alternation. — The principle of alternation like that of combination will work in different ways. Some subjects permit of daily alternation. Two very common examples of this sort of alternation are music and drawing, or writing and drawing. Several good programs for one-teacher rural schools have five studies alternating at the same period; for example, music, drawing, nature study, writing, and construction work.

Another form of alternation that can be used advantageously with upper grades is the half-term type. Instead of having the eighth grade pupils recite commercial geography and business arithmetic for fifteen minutes a day throughout the term, they recite in geography thirty minutes a day for the first half-term, and devote the other half to arithmetic. This is usually better than daily alternation.

Yearly alternation is a still more important and useful application of this principle. This consists of giving the entire work of a grade one year and the entire work

of the next grade the succeeding year. Of course, first grade work must be given each year, but, beyond that, grades are alternated in twos — second and third grade pupils doing second grade work together one year, and third grade work together the following year. Thus, one year the school offers the work of the first, third, fifth and seventh grades, the next year the same school does the work of the first, second, fourth, sixth and eighth grades. This arrangement works very well in many rural schools connected with normal schools and throughout several entire states, notably Illinois. It requires some stability of service on the part of the teacher, however, and a sufficient supply of supplementary books to make it most effective. But even a partial use of yearly alternation is of great aid in reducing the number of classes in the rural school and some application of this principle should always be made.

Correlation. — Correlation is an important principle of good teaching, as well as a means of reducing the number of classes upon the program. It consists of teaching together parts of subjects which naturally belong together because they are related. For example, the class in American history studies the events preceding the formation of the Constitution, then spends a few weeks upon the Constitution itself as a topic in civics, and later proceeds with its history. Or the agricultural class, in the study of corn, discusses the best type of corncrib, and each boy is requested to make a drawing of the corncrib at his own home, and calculate its capacity. This is a natural relating of arithmetic, drawing, and agriculture. In like manner, bookkeeping may be correlated with arithmetic, language with

literature or nature study, geography with history, and spelling with language or reading. Good correlation requires effort and well-planned teaching, but the results are excellent, as through it each subject becomes more interesting and vital.

Elimination. — The principle of *elimination* operates by omitting unnecessary studies. Many parts of textbooks ought not to be taught, and whole subjects must be omitted if the number of classes upon a rural school program is to be effectively reduced. One subject that may wisely be omitted is number work for first grade. Most progressive teachers agree that number-teaching should be only incidental the first year. Little beginners may be given some number seat work, but first grade pupils do not need a class in numbers. Since pupils are no longer taught reading by the slow and laborious alphabet method, it is unwise, also, to have spelling classes for the first and second grades. Moreover, spelling through the use of word builders for seat work may be more effectively taught than by oral recitation.

Civics may be omitted from the program if civil government is carefully correlated with United States history. If more time is needed for civics in the advanced grades than can be given in the history period, the *Field and Nearing Community Civics* or *Our Neighborhood* by John S. Smith (see Appendix, Section II) may be used as a supplementary reader. Many rural schools have no classes in bookkeeping, giving all essential training in household and farm accounts during the arithmetic period or in connection with industrial work. From this it is evident that the principle of elimination is most frequently used in connection with

one of the other basic principles. Classes are combined, alternated or correlated, and thus one or more can be eliminated from the program.

Satisfactory Number of Classes. — After the number of classes has been reduced to about twenty, the teacher has still two problems to solve before the program can be completed. First, the sequence, or order in which the classes are to come, must be decided; and then the amount of time for each recitation must be determined.

Sequence of Classes. — In deciding upon the order of the classes three factors must be considered: The difficulty of subjects, the importance of subjects in the school for which the program is planned, and the instinctive interest subjects possess. The flood-tide of attention is in the morning before recess; its lowest ebb, because of fatigue and hunger, comes in the last half hour of the forenoon session and late in the day. The periods immediately following the recesses are almost as good as the morning period if all the pupils have been enjoying vigorous outdoor exercise.

Most teachers regard beginning reading, arithmetic, and English as the subjects of greatest difficulty. They also rank high in importance. These subjects should, therefore, be placed during the best periods. Other subjects, as construction work, possess such interest that the pupils forget their fatigue while working. These can come at the times when attention lags.

Time Allotments. — In planning the length of time for each class, it must be remembered that primary pupils cannot give alert attention for long periods. Because of this fact, more can be accomplished with be-

ginners in four ten-minute periods than in two periods of twenty minutes each.

The time devoted to the different subjects and classes must vary to meet the needs of individual schools. If there are many pupils in the primary classes, and few in the upper grades, the primary classes should not be combined. This will mean that more time is allotted to them. A subject in which pupils are unusually deficient must be given more time. No real teacher allots more than the deserved time to her favorite subjects, nor gives small space to those in which she lacks interest.

Study Periods. — For all grades beyond the first, study periods must be provided. Many progressive teachers prefer that these periods for study follow the recitations. There are at least four reasons for this preference: 1. The recitation should arouse interest in the subject and the assignment should furnish motive or incentive for immediate study. 2. It is also maintained that there is less superficial work, when the lessons studied are not to be recited immediately, because pupils have some time to think over the ideas presented in the text before the class discussion. 3. There is less loss to the pupil by one day's absence, because he never loses both the study period and the recitation of the same lesson. 4. It is extremely valuable to form the habit of immediate attack upon an assigned task. Much time now lost by procrastination might be saved by the formation of this habit.

In most rural schools, however, pupils do some studying at home. A specific aim and a strong incentive are the only real preventives of superficial work. The work

lost by occasional necessary absences can be regained by the earnest pupil who feels the need of the lost instruction. It is not absolutely essential, therefore, that study periods follow classes. The important consideration is that the program shall indicate to each pupil the work to be done at a given period, so that time and energy may not be wasted by lack of system and routine.

Suggestive Program. — The program which follows is not adapted to any particular rural school. It is only an illustrative embodiment of the suggestions made in this chapter. Several other suggestive programs will be found in the Appendix. (Section XI.)

After reducing the number of classes to twenty-one, the sequence and time allotments were worked out, on the supposition that all eight grades were represented, with an approximately even number, probably three pupils, in each grade.

No space is given for spelling in upper or lower grades. The upper grade pupils may have their spelling correlated with English and word-builders are provided for lower grades.

No classes are provided in reading above the fourth grade, as literature and informational reading matter can be used for reading purposes in these grades. Part of the term's work in geography, for example, might be reading from a geographical reader. Silent reading is more important than oral, but upper grade pupils may read aloud at the period devoted to literature or current events.

No space is given upon the program for instruction in sewing, cooking, or manual training. The cooking can be taught while the hot lunch is being planned and

prepared. An occasional last period in the day may be used for instruction in these subjects, and much of the daily supervision must be done by pupil monitors. Since most of the hand work should be correlated with other lessons or projects, some instruction for this subject can be given during the recitation with which it is correlated.

The alternated classes suggested for the last periods of each session may be of the daily, weekly, or monthly type, and other subjects may be selected. All the suggested subjects should certainly find a place upon the program, and at least four — hygiene, nature study, literature and oral English — should be emphasized, but the time needed for each will vary with the needs of the school. The use of the project method will be found excellent in several of these subjects suggested for alternation.

In the general class for primary pupils, it is intended that history and geography stories be given. These can be used effectively as a basis for sand table projects. The teacher at this period should plan to give such vital instruction as will afford unity and continuity to much of the primary occupations in drawing and hand work.

Although no space has been left vacant upon the program in which the teacher may supervise study, this may be provided for in two ways. First, many of the recitation periods, especially at the beginning of the term, and when new phases of subjects are being started, should be of the study-recitation type. In lessons of this sort, the study is done during the class period under the guidance and direction of the teacher. Second, the recitation period of some one class may be devoted to a

written lesson, during which the teacher may use her time in supervising the work of the pupils. The primary seat work should be supervised largely by pupil monitors.

Following the Program. — Much thought and care must be given to the making of a good program for each individual rural school. After the program has been satisfactorily arranged, it should become the regular schedule. It must not be too rigidly observed, however. It is often desirable to make adjustments to oblige visitors, and sometimes the presence of perishable material for nature study or drawing may call for a change of schedule. The program should serve the school by conserving the time and energy of both pupils and teacher, but should never be so iron-clad that it becomes a tyrant or master.

Modification will need to be made from time to time. For example, in the suggestive program submitted it would probably be better to call the arithmetic classes for the two upper divisions at the same period for a part of the time and give separate periods in English. As the first-year pupils gain in power to read, part of their seat work periods may be devoted to reading, and greater use of library books can be permitted.

Finally, a good program will be the product of the teacher's deepest thought, will be observed day by day, deviated from when the best interests of the school demand a change, and modified so as to be kept strictly up to date.

Summary. — The program given in this chapter shows the number of recitations reduced to twenty-one. This is done by using the principles of combination, alter-

PROGRAM FOR ONE-TEACHER RURAL SCHOOLS

STUDY AND OCCUPATIONS

| TIME — RECITATIONS | E (Beginners) | D (2d) | C (3d and 4th) | B (5th and 6th) | A (7th and 8th) |
|--------------------|---|---------------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| 9:00 | Opening | | | | |
| 9:05 | E Reading | Reading | History Stories | History | English |
| 9:15 | D Reading | Word Drill Cards | History Stories | History | English |
| 9:25 | C Language | Blackboard | Library | Library | English |
| 9:35 | B English | Play | Language | Language | Library |
| 10:05 | C Arithmetic | Socialized Number Drill Games (D & E) | English | English | Library |
| 10:10 | A Arithmetic | Drawing | Arithmetic | Arithmetic | English |
| 10:30 | | RECESS | Arithmetic | Arithmetic | Arithmetic |
| 10:45 | D and E Word Drill | | Library | Library | Arithmetic |
| | Phonics | | | | Arithmetic |
| 10:55 | B Arithmetic | Word or Phonic Drill | Library | Arithmetic | Arithmetic |
| 11:10 | A History | Puzzle Pictures | Library | Arithmetic | History |
| 11:30 | C Reading | Sand Table | Blackboard | Arithmetic | |
| 11:45 | Writing, Drawing, Nature Study, Music and Construction. | (All grades) | | | |
| 12:00 | | NOON RECESS | | | |
| 1:00 | E Reading | Reading | Reading | Reading | Industrial Arts |
| 1:10 | D Reading | Blackboard | Reading | Hand Work | History |
| 1:20 | B Geography | Sentence Builders | Play | Hand Work | Industrial Arts |
| 1:40 | C Geography | Play | Library | Geography | Industrial Arts |
| 1:50 | A Geography | Hand Work | Blackboard | Geography | Industrial Arts |
| 2:20 | B and C Spelling | Library | RECESS | Geography | Geography |
| 2:30 | | | | | |
| 2:45 | General Primary Lessons — Literature, History and Geography (Grades 1 to 4) | | | | |
| | | Sentence Builders | | | |
| 2:55 | B History | Sand Table | | Spelling | Geography |
| 3:10 | A English | Drawing | | Hand Work | History |
| 3:35 | Literature, Hygiene, Story-Telling and Current Events. | | | | |
| | Also Agriculture. (Upper grades) | | | | |

nation, correlation, and elimination. In arranging the sequence or order of classes, studies are considered as to their difficulty, importance, and interest. The age of the pupils and the nature of the subject matter determines the allotment of time to each recitation. The seat work and study periods also are carefully planned. In addition instructions are given for the use and modifications of the daily program.

EXERCISES

1. Is it an injustice for a teacher to attempt to teach twenty-five or more classes each day? If so, to whom is it unjust?
2. Bring to class a rural school program which contains thirty or more classes. Prepare also a short paper, telling some instances of friction resulting from an overcrowded program.
3. Give some examples of an overcrowded program due largely to improper classification.
4. Why is a program of classes only, inferior to one providing for seat work also?
5. State arguments for and against having all pupils of the same class prepare the same lesson at the same study periods.
6. Construct a daily program involving your own ideas for a school having grades one to six, with one teacher in charge.
7. Bring to class a brief summary of the work laid down in your state course of study for any one grade you may select, together with the names of the textbooks to be used in each subject.
8. List the dangers of excess in attempted correlation, and some benefits that would probably follow its wise use.

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CHAPTER X

EDUCATIVE SEAT WORK

- Harmful primary seat work**
 - Writing and making figures
 - Memorizing
 - Other types of harmful seat work
- Helpful seat work**
 - Play, an educative occupation
 - 1. Work that is play
 - 2. Socialized drill games
 - Hand work, a constructive activity
 - Reading as seat work
 - Study
 - Types of primary study work
 - 1. Sentence builders
 - 2. Word-drill cards
 - 3. Phonic-drill cards
 - 4. Word-builders
- The preparation and management of seat work
- Advantages of home-made seat work
 - Hectograph
- Summary

In every good program special attention must be given to seat work because of its large importance to primary children. It is therefore essential to discriminate between valuable or educative occupation and the worthless forms of "busy work."

Harmful Primary Seat Work. — Three types of seat work, commonly employed, are writing, making figures, and memorizing. As ordinarily used, these activities are harmful instead of helpful to the child. Anything de-

vised merely to keep a pupil quiet is likely to be harmful, and too frequently seat work is planned for the advantage of the teacher rather than the advancement of the child.

Writing and Making Figures. — Writing, as seat work in primary grades, is harmful for three reasons: first, it is hard on the eyes and nerves of little children to work for periods of any length at a task which combines the use of the eyes and the small finger muscles. Second, writing for seat work, before the pupil has been well trained in penmanship, causes the pupil to become fixed in wrong writing habits, incorrect both in form and movement. Many times, in city schools, it has been observed that pupils write much more unevenly at the close of the fourth year than at the close of the second. This is due to a large amount of unsupervised written seat work. Daily lessons in penmanship cannot offset the wrong habits acquired at the seat work periods. In rural schools, where daily writing lessons are not often given, it is much more important to prevent the formation of wrong writing habits. The last and chief reason why writing should not be used as primary seat work is that it constitutes an uninteresting and monotonous task, unrelated to the life and needs of the child. It is therefore likely to cause him to dislike school, to grow less ambitious and, in short, to become dull, listless, and retarded. The same reasons hold good to an even greater extent for the making of figures, the tasks being similar in nature and result.

Memorizing. — That too much memorizing is required even among primary pupils is proved by the fact that many children learn all the addition and

multiplication tables before the end of their second school year. Moreover, it is a common occurrence to find a first or second grade pupil in a rural school who can repeat all the lessons of his reader, but who cannot recognize the simplest word contained therein, when presented from a new book. He has merely memorized the lessons from frequent repetitions, and connected these committed selections with certain pictures or other "landmarks."

But it is in the intermediate and grammar grades that memorizing does its greatest harm. Many teachers demand no more than that the pupils be able to repeat the words of the textbook. When done as seat work, without careful preparation and assignment, the memorizing of words is meaningless, slow, and uninteresting. Such tasks as memorizing the presidents or governors in their order, with the dates of their successive administrations, or naming the states, together with the name and location of each capital, are not only useless and wasteful of time, but actually harmful in that they rob the child of opportunity and incentive for thinking.

Other Types of Harmful Seat Work. — Much of the comment made upon writing and making figures is equally applicable to fine weaving, sewing cards, drawing stencils, or aimless activities in stringing beads, arranging pegs, modeling, or paper cutting.

Helpful Seat Work. — Since the most common forms of seat work should be avoided, teachers should carefully consider what occupations will prove profitable as employment for pupils when not reciting. At least four kinds may be so used that they promote education. These are play, hand work, reading, and study.

Play an Educative Occupation. — Activity is natural to little children. Keeping them in their seats for long periods is unnatural, even cruel. At least one period, usually spent in seat work, should be given to primary pupils for outdoor play. The first and second grade children need more play than is ordinarily provided, and should be allowed to pass quietly out to the play-ground after forty-five minutes in the schoolroom. When the weather is too stormy to permit outdoor play, each primary pupil may be permitted to choose his own occupation for that period. Such freedom of choice will make the occupation resemble play.

1. *Work that is Play.* — Many of the occupations of the primary grades, such as drawing upon the black-board, working at the sand table, stringing beads, making designs with parquetry blocks, building with blocks, cutting, pasting, modeling, puzzle pictures, and similar tasks, may be real play to the child, but work in sense-training, muscular control, or numbers, from the teacher's viewpoint. Other things being equal, that teacher is most successful with primary pupils who can imbue most of the essential work of the first years of school with this play spirit.

2. *Socialized Drill Games.* — Another type of occupation that is work from the teacher's viewpoint, but play from the child's, is the drill game conducted by the pupils themselves. For example, the teacher may say: "Johnny knows his words (or sounds or number combinations) so well to-day that he may be postmaster. Take the mail, Johnny, and open the post office in the rear of the room." Johnny then takes the perception cards, and goes to the back of the room, perhaps plac-

ing his "mail" on the seat of a chair with its back toward the class for a window grating. Each child, as he approaches, greets the postmaster, and asks for mail, must recognize the card held up to him before he can claim his letter. This is but one illustration of many drill games that children will enjoy playing.

Hand Work, a Constructive Activity.—Several seat work periods each day should be devoted to construction work of various kinds in primary grades, and all grades should do some hand work each day. Perforated cards for card sewing and leatherette stencils to aid in drawing should never be bought for the use of primary pupils, however, as such work is just as hard on little fingers, eyes, and nerves as writing or making figures, and equally useless. But children love to make things, and there are many ways in which they can use paper, cardboard, scissors, paste, colors, and other materials easily procured so that their school days may be made more pleasant and profitable. Hand work may be truly educative.

There are five tests of the educative value of constructive activities: Such work should be interesting because of its variety and novelty; adapted to the pupil's age and state of development; directly related to the child's individual interests or to the work of the class and school; supervised and guided; and productive of results valuable or profitable to the child. Much of the hand work of the first two grades may well be related to the sand table and doll's house. In the intermediate grades much hand work may be in booklet form, or connected with reading. *The Tree Dwellers* and other books by Katherine E. Dopp, published by

Rand, McNally, & Company, Chicago, make excellent combination readers for third and fourth grades, and provide much profitable hand work.

Reading as Seat Work. — The value of reading for seat work should not be overlooked. Nowhere is there greater need of the habit of reading for pleasure and profit than in the country, because nowhere is there greater opportunity for enjoying this habit when it has been formed. All children, if skillfully taught to read, should enjoy reading; and this enjoyment should be intensified by providing much easy and interesting reading material, and giving all pupils opportunity and incentive for the reading of books.

Socialized reading, like drill games, may also be conducted in the rear of the room to good advantage. Sometimes one pupil may read aloud to the others; at other times lines may be practiced with a view to dramatization. On occasions this type of reading may be largely silent with an appeal to one another, or to an older pupil for help with unknown words. However conducted, and whatever its immediate aim, it should be a group activity, and one of the group should be the leader. While the small amount of noise necessary may be slightly disturbing at first, the increased power and speed gained by pupils in reading will more than compensate for this, and custom will make it practically unnoticeable.

Study. — For intermediate and upper grade pupils, intelligently directed study should be the chief occupation when not reciting. The employment of the problem method of teaching history, geography, and kindred subjects, the wise use of projects, the assignment of

different tasks to individual pupils or to groups of pupils, and the relating of school work to life outside — all these are methods of securing real study. Every teacher owes it to her pupils, as well as to herself, to learn the nature and methods of study, so that she may guide her pupils in correct methods of work.

Types of Primary Study Work. — Primary pupils should have special seat work prepared for them by the teacher, which will take the place of study and fit them for study later when they have sufficiently mastered the art of reading. At least two periods a day should be devoted to this study seat work or work that correlates with their reading lessons. . Four kinds of this study seat work should be prepared by the teacher to fit the primer used. These are: Sentence builders, word-drill cards, phonic-drill cards, and word-builders.

1. Sentence Builders. — The sentence builders to be used the first week of school should contain one or more sentences exactly like the sentences used in the black-board reading lessons of the primer class. These lessons, of course, should prepare pupils for the primer to be used. Different sentences should be made for each day in the week, based on the day's lesson. These sentences should then be cut up into words and phrases and placed in small boxes or envelopes, one for each child in the class. At first the children make a sentence to match one just read from the board. Later, two copies of rhymes, or other short and interesting lessons from the primer, can be made for each child, one cut up and the other left whole to be matched. Pages from old primers can be used to good advantage for this purpose. Still later, the children can make original

sentences from the same cut-up cards, or match lessons in their primers.

Whenever possible, sentence builders should be illustrated. Outline drawings, stamp-kraft pictures, or pictures cut from teacher's magazines, or from worn-out primers may be used for this purpose. For example, a picture of Bo-Peep, with the first line of the Mother Goose rhyme written below it, might be hectographed, or made by pasting a cut-out picture on a piece of tag-board and writing or printing the line below it. There should be two copies for each child in the beginners' class. The first exercises might be the giving of several sets of these cards (Boy Blue, Jack Horner, and Humpty Dumpty, together with Bo-Peep), each rhyme having two cards, one containing the first line attached to the picture, the other having the whole line cut off. The children match the title to the pictures with the uncut pictures as guides.

Later other lines of the same rhymes may be added, and the children will soon learn to build up the rhymes, aided by the duplicate uncut copies, working first by lines, and then by phrases. Finally they can make the rhymes from separate words without the guiding duplicate.

Another variant of this sentence-builder device is to have the line extend the full length of the picture and slice up both picture and title, so that when the pupil matches the puzzle picture he also matches its title. An ingenious teacher can soon discover many ways to make sentence builders novel, yet educative.

2. Word-drill Cards. — Word-drill cards may also be made for use the first weeks of the term. These

should contain only such words as can be illustrated. A simple outline picture is placed at the top of each column, and the word written or printed six or eight times below. About ten such columns can be hectographed at once, making one copy for each primer pupil. The words are then cut apart, leaving the top one attached to the picture. When assigned for seat work the pupils arrange the words in columns under the proper picture. Begin with two words only, and add one a day until the box or envelope contains the entire set first hectographed. A new box or envelope should then be started, and these sets should be constantly changed. This is done by taking out words when they have been learned, and replacing them with new illustrated words based on the latest reading lessons. This constant change will offer sufficient variety to this work to keep beginners happily employed for one period each day of the first month or six weeks. As pupils master the art of reading, this seat work can be replaced by actual reading in very easy supplementary primers.

3. Phonic-drill Cards. — Phonic-drill cards are prepared much as word-drill cards, the difference being that, instead of repeating the illustrated word, it is followed by similar words, containing the same sound. For example, below the picture of a *hat* the words might be *hat, fat, Nat, bat, sat*, etc., using the words found in the child's primer. These are to be arranged in columns also, each box containing six or eight cut-up illustrated cards.

If script lessons are used for the first blackboard reading lessons, all the study seat work should be made in the same plain script. The phonic seat work can be

profitably used the latter part of the first year and all through the second grade, becoming more difficult as the pupils advance. Another type of phonic-drill cards may contain the phonograms *ack*, *ake*, *ight*, etc., and separate consonants. With these pupils build words, placing similar words in columns. Each box should contain six or eight copies of each phonogram, and several different phonograms, together with a large supply of consonants.

4. Word-builders. — Another kind of seat work that helps with reading and spelling in the latter part of the first year and all through the second year, is the word-builder. Here, also, the home-made seat work will be found cheaper and better — better because the letters in the bought word-builders are usually too small. To prepare word-builders, cut tag-board into inch strips and use a printing outfit containing rubber type three-fourths of an inch in height. Print six or eight copies of all small letters in the alphabet for each pupil in the class, and two or three of capitals. Cut these apart and put them in small boxes, one for each pupil. The primary classes can thus make words from their books, the board, or even from memory, without being hindered by their inability to write, or being confirmed in wrong habits of writing. The printing outfit used in making the word-builders can also be used to make perception cards and charts. Empty thread boxes make good containers for all study seat work, and most merchants will be glad to save them for school use, at the teacher's request.

The Preparation and Management of Seat Work. — Many country teachers feel that they have not time to

prepare this study seat work for primary grades, but the time used in making and keeping up a supply for a class of eight will not exceed an hour and a half a week. Moreover, this preparation is a sort of "fancy-work" that will rest the tired brain, very different from grading papers in grammar or arithmetic. Above all, when one considers the few brief periods devoted to the little ones, their helplessness in the use of books, and the importance of a right start in habits of industry and perseverance, surely the most indifferent must be willing to make any effort necessary to fit the rural school with educative seat work.

Not only the preparation of seat work but the management and care of materials demands careful attention. In *Country Life and the Country School* Miss Carney speaks as follows on the importance of this phase of school management:

The management of hand work instruction and of the materials used, involves no small difficulty in country schools. Much inconvenience is occasioned, for one thing, in giving the help necessary to each child. It is great economy, therefore, to take up the teaching of the five processes in some regular recitation period, probably in the primary class listed on the program above. After such explanation the children can proceed quite independently. Let some of the older children oversee the seat work of the younger ones. This can be practiced to the advantage of all in a school of the right spirit.

Another difficulty arises because some children work faster than others. For this, do not discourage rapidity, but devise a system elastic enough to accommodate all. Provide daily enough slips of paper for each grade requiring seat work assignments. Then on the one for the first grade, for example, list all the different seat work problems that relate to the work of the day, arranged in the order of their educational value. Through this plan, as soon as a quick child has finished his task a new one awaits him and there is no distracted teacher vainly racking her brain for an assignment. In the case of the third and fourth grades, these cards or slips may be tacked

up where the children can see them, making it possible for each child to refer to them and proceed at his own rate without further direction from the busy teacher.

The care of materials is another vital matter in hand work instruction in country schools. Indeed, much of the success of the whole room management and of the teaching process itself depends upon this. Good housekeeping is a fundamental requisite of the country teacher. Various plans for the care of materials may be worked out. A closet or cabinet of some kind is almost necessary for general stores. For the individual work each child may have his own box, containing his personal equipment, or the different kinds of work may be classified in separate boxes or drawers. In this, each teacher must suit her own convenience. The important thing is that a definite, systematic plan be developed and followed. Froebel himself could never have taught a presentable lesson in cutting when he failed to find the scissors!

Advantages of Home-made Seat Work. — Many school journals contain pages of seat work materials, and school supply houses always offer sentence-builders and word-builders in their catalogues of primary supplies. These are better than nothing, but it is still better for several reasons to prepare your own seat work. Home-made seat work is not so expensive, the words and sentences can be made larger than in commercial copies, and the work can be planned to contain only those words upon which the class needs to be drilled.

The best material upon which to place such work is a thin cardboard, much like the post cards sold at post offices. This is called *manila tag*, and it may be bought at small cost from the ordinary printing office. Where there are but few primary pupils, the seat work described above may be duplicated by the use of carbon paper. If there are many beginners, however, the teacher will need to purchase a hectograph or make one by the following recipe.

Hectograph. — Put two ounces of clear gelatin in the inner part of a double boiler, cover with water, and let it stand over night. Next morning set the vessel containing the gelatin in another containing water, and put on the fire. When the gelatin has dissolved, add slowly twelve ounces of glycerine and cook for fifteen or twenty minutes after the last of the glycerine has been dropped into the gelatin. Pour the mixture into a shallow cake pan which measures at least nine by twelve inches. Prick any bubbles with a pin, remove any foam by passing the edge of a sheet of writing paper over the surface, and set on a level place to cool and harden.

This hectograph can be melted again whenever the surface becomes rough. It should be cleaned after it is used, with a soft cloth wet with fairly hot water, and should be covered, when not in use, to protect the surface from dust. Hectograph ink is needed to make the best possible copies. Use a stub pen for your original copy. See that every stroke leaves a metallic luster when dry. Having made your copy, let it dry, then press it down on the surface of the hectograph. Leave it there from one to five minutes, then gently peel off the paper. You will find your writing and drawing transferred to the hectograph and, by pressing clean sheets of paper or cardboard evenly on the surface, you can take off many copies in a short time.

Summary. — In Chapter X the subject of educative seat work has been discussed. Writing and making figures, memorizing, and fine sewing are held to be harmful activities for primary grades. Four forms of seat work that might become profitable if used in the right time, place, and manner are listed as play, hand work,

reading, and study. Work to take the place of textbook study for beginning pupils is described in detail.

EXERCISES

1. Give an example showing how the same assignment of seat work may be either harmful or profitable, the difference in result being determined by where or how it is used.
2. Why should reading or copying not be placed upon a program as seat work for a primer class?
3. Is the boy who reads his lesson over and over necessarily studying?
4. Give an illustration of seat work which you have seen used whose only purposes must have been to keep the pupil quiet.
5. State briefly, in written form, three reasons why hand work should be given in school besides the fact that it keeps primary pupils interested and therefore quiet.
6. Describe three health posters whose making would be profitable as seat work.
7. Name three subjects whose interest might be intensified by the making of booklets, giving an illustration of each.
8. List the benefits you would expect from the making and furnishing of a doll house by the primary grades of a rural school.
9. Describe a sand table project which would furnish profitable seat work for a third grade, and which would correlate with some other work required by your course of study for this grade.
10. Name three special days around which hand work activities might be clustered, giving examples to illustrate each case.

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(See the Appendix for addresses of firms dealing in commercial seat work supplies.)

CHAPTER XI

TEACHING PUPILS TO STUDY

- The nature of study
- Factors in study
- Training for study through the recitation
 - Study-recitation lessons
 - Reading for thought
 - Dramatization
 - Thought-provoking questions
 - Use of outlines
 - Problems and projects
 - Hand work
 - Outside study
- Training for study through assignments
 - Time necessary for assignments
 - Individual assignments
 - Group assignments
 - Definiteness necessary
 - Form of assignments
- The supervision of study
- Summary

For intermediate and upper grade pupils, as our public schools are now organized, study must be the chief occupation of the pupils when not reciting. It is necessary, therefore, for teachers to learn the nature of study, in order that pupils may be properly directed in this work.

The Nature of Study. — No study is worth the name unless it involves thinking. Professor John Dewey, acknowledged by many as the greatest educational philosopher of our day, lays down a bed rock principle in *How We Think* when he says: "The only information

which can be put to logical use is that acquired in the course of thinking." In other words, no fact or idea which has not been gained during a thought process is available for use in future thinking. Therefore, only *thoughtful* practice, *thoughtful* memorizing, *thoughtful* observation, *thoughtful* reading and reflection, deserve the name of study.

Study has been well defined as the assimilating of ideas, the reorganizing of experience. We all understand that assimilated food becomes a part of our bodies, being changed into our own blood, bones, or living tissues. Because of this change, food strengthens us, warms us, and enables us to grow. Just so, facts and ideas must become part of our mental life before they can modify our experience or extend our knowledge. The test of our assimilation of an idea is our ability to use it, or to be benefited by it.

The teacher is responsible not only for presenting wholesome mental food to each child, but also for seeing that it is thoroughly assimilated. Hence, a teacher must learn the factors that compose good study, must provide opportunity and incentive for study, and must demand its results.

The amount of thinking demanded by study varies with the nature of the subject matter. For example, it requires far less thinking to master the spelling of familiar words than to solve a difficult problem in arithmetic. There must be some thinking done, however, even in studying spelling, if the pupil becomes an accurate speller without waste of time and energy.

Factors in Study.—The four essential factors of good study are: *A clear aim or purpose; a genuine in-*

terest in the material studied, in the method of study, or in the results sought; such concentration of attention that ordinary distractions are unnoticed; and a testing or checking up of the results obtained. In order that the pupils may be trained in correct habits of study, the teacher should see that all pupils have a clear aim or purpose in the study of each lesson, that their interest is so lively that concentration will be probable, and that they understand that each pupil will be held responsible for testing his results. This work of training pupils to study properly must be accomplished by the teacher through a wise use of recitation periods and lesson assignments, and through the careful supervision of study.

Training for Study through the Recitation. — One purpose of the recitation is to find out what the pupil knows and *how he obtained the knowledge*. Too many teachers demand only the facts, whereas the process by which these facts have been acquired is of far greater importance. In order that the recitation may check any tendency toward thoughtless memorizing or shallow, careless thinking, and train pupils to thoughtful, careful study, the teacher must plan to give much needful training at the recitation periods.

Study-recitation Lessons. — Frequent study-recitation lessons should therefore be given in all grades and in all subjects taught. In this type of lesson the pupils work with books open, guided by the teacher's questions and suggestions. This method is often used with success in primary grades, but it is not common with upper grade classes. Such lessons increase in importance, however, as the subject matter grows more difficult.

and the pupil's mind becomes more mature. Surely the busy country teacher can employ her small stock of time no more profitably than by showing pupils how to work through the study-recitation lesson.

Reading for Thought. — Rapid, accurate thought-getting should be taught in all classes in reading. In order to start pupils right, and encourage the idea that printed and written words have meaning, many riddle-lessons, action-lessons and dialogue-lessons should be given to primary reading classes. In the riddle-lessons, the pupil reads the lesson silently, then tells the answer. In action-lessons, the pupil is told to do something and, after reading the sentence silently, shows that he understands by doing what the sentence commands. In dialogue-lessons, the material is arranged in conversational form, usually having the name of the speaker prefixed. Most good primers contain lessons of each of these types, and with these as models the teacher can make similar blackboard lessons for supplementary reading. Moreover, in selecting primers for supplementary use, the teacher can seek for books containing such lessons. Drill in rapid, silent thought-getting from the printed page should continue through all the grades, and with all subjects. Much of the difficulty in solving arithmetic problems, for example, comes from a careless reading of the conditions laid down. Teach pupils to read problems with understanding before they try to solve them.

Dramatization. — The dramatizing, or the acting of stories read is a further aid to thought-getting. Children should dramatize not only reading lessons, but stories from history as well as literature. It is sometimes

claimed that the busy rural teacher has no time for this, but it may take the place of the recitation in reading or history, or convert a rainy noon-hour into a delightful period. The fact that children of all ages are found in the rural school makes dramatization much easier. An original dramatization of an incident from history, for example, might well take the place of the cheap, coarse dialogue or play too often given on last-day programs, or other occasions, by rural schools.

Thought-provoking Questions. — In addition to having study-recitations and teaching pupils to read for thought, the teacher should train pupils to study by asking thought-provoking questions at recitation periods. When students know that they will be asked questions which cannot be answered unless they have given thoughtful study to their lessons, thinking will be encouraged. In planning lessons, teachers should realize that a plan containing three good questions, questions which will require the pupils to think actively about what they have read, is far better than one containing thirty questions which can be answered by "Yes" or "No." There is no better way to keep pupils from thinking than for a teacher to ask questions which can always be answered by recalling the exact words used in the textbook.

Use of Outlines. — Another way of teaching pupils to think during the recitation is to teach the use and value of the outline. Many teachers have their upper-grade pupils outline their work in grammar or composition, but outlines can be used in nearly all subjects and in all grades. Primary pupils can be taught to make oral outlines of the stories they read and tell. Teachers should make the outline with the class for some time at

first. One pupil can then begin an oral outline and others complete the story. Pupils should outline their lessons in history, geography and other subjects. There is no better way by which pupils may grow accustomed to placing the true value upon statements, and seeing them in their proper relations, than by picturing these facts in outlines. Teachers should use blackboard outlines in presenting lessons at the recitation period, and should later require these outlines to be made by the classes.

Problems and Projects. — Perhaps the most effective way to stimulate real thinking through the recitation is for teachers to use the problem or project method of teaching wherever possible. There are real problems to be solved in every grade and in every subject. The teacher who can help the pupils to find these problems and work out their solution is training them to think. The class that starts to work with a clear statement of a problem in which its members are interested may be expected to do much more in the way of thinking than the class which is merely reciting upon so many pages of a certain textbook. Some teachers still cling to the idea that thinking is possible only in the upper grades, but it is astonishing to see the thought and interest aroused by the use of the problem method in primary grades. In nature study, for instance, instead of following an outline when studying the cat, suggest the problem: "If there was no one to feed her, how could your kitty get food to keep her alive?" All the facts in a logical outline would probably be learned in the course of such a lesson. The pupils should learn why the cat has whiskers, why she has eyes that can see well in the

dark, what her claws are used for, and why she needs soft paws so that she can move quietly. Moreover, the interest and training in thinking are of far greater value than the facts learned. Many of the best new textbooks, especially those in geography, as the series by McMurry and Parkins, set forth excellent problems. An intelligent study of such books will be of great help to all teachers who feel the need of training in this very valuable method of teaching. Problems can also be effectively based upon exhibits, not only imported exhibits of pictures and industries but upon those of local neighborhood resources. Every teacher should try to become skillful in the use of the problem method of teaching.

Hand Work. — Another excellent way of stimulating thought is to provide hand work in the school and allow the pupils to undertake projects of their own selection occasionally. A child may frequently desire to make something too difficult, but this desire can be used as a motive for doing the necessary preparatory work. A story is told in Betts and Hall's *Better Rural Schools* of a thirteen-year-old boy attending a consolidated rural school who asked permission to make the body of a runabout in the manual training class. His teacher told him that he did not know enough about arithmetic and mechanical drawing to undertake such a difficult project, but promised to allow him to try the work as soon as he had learned enough to complete the task. The boy studied his arithmetic and drawing with the greatest interest, because he wanted an automobile and his father had promised to buy him the running gear and engine as soon as he could make the body. He finally

succeeded in his ambition, but before that time came, he had become so skillful in his drawing and arithmetic that he never lost interest in these subjects.

Hand work encourages clear thinking, because the results can be easily tested. The girl who cannot tell whether she has written a good composition can easily tell whether her doll's dress fits, and the boy who may not be able to prove an arithmetic problem can tell whether his sled has been correctly made. The introduction of hand work into rural schools may be met with opposition in some localities, but the suggestion made in regard to dramatization will apply here also. Stormy noon hours may be thus occupied until the value of the work is proved to the neighborhood.

Outside Study. — Pupils may be trained to think by encouraging study outside the textbooks. A wise teacher can frequently during the recitation arouse an interest in some phase of a subject which will kindle a desire for further information. If books, magazines or bulletins are furnished wherein this information may be readily found, some pupils will surely do a little additional study. Whenever such a problem can be connected with the home or community, and the answer must be found by observing rather than by reading, thought is even more effectively stimulated.

Training for Study through Assignments. — In addition to these ways of teaching pupils to study by means of the recitation, much may be done to encourage intelligent methods of work through the lesson assignments. Lesson assignments should be very definite and very carefully planned. Pupils should be told not only *what* they are to learn, but also *how* they are expected to study.

A BUSY GROUP

These children have evidently learned the art of study. Photograph from the Experimental Rural School maintained by Teachers College, Columbia University, in Warren County, New Jersey.



Time Necessary for Assignments. — Enough time must be taken from the recitation to make clear and definite assignments. Many a carefully planned assignment has been ruined by being too hastily worded and spoken. In order to save time, study assignments for the upper grades may be written each evening, as the teacher prepares for the teaching of the following day, and posted upon the bulletin board. This plan will be more effective later in the term, after the methods to be used have been learned and the teacher's requirements are understood.

Individual Assignments. — Initiative and responsibility may be encouraged by making individual assignments for outside work. This can be done by making these assignments appeal to the pupils' likes and interests. The brighter and better prepared pupils should have extra work assigned them, and their reports upon these assignments will add interest to the recitation. The duller or weaker pupils should have work assigned them in books easier than their textbooks.

Group Assignments. — Since committee work is common in many of life's situations, occasional group assignments should be given for procuring and organizing information. Such group solution of problems encourages both leadership and coöperation, and fits the pupils for working together in church, club or business.

Definiteness Necessary. — All assignments of required work outside the textbooks should be very definite. Pupils should not only be told what book, magazine or bulletin to consult, but should know the chapters or pages of special interest. The bringing into class of information not required or assigned, but bearing upon

the subject under discussion, should always be encouraged and rewarded.

Form of Assignment. — Lest the previous paragraph be misunderstood, it should be definitely stated that a lesson assignment made by pages or paragraphs alone is the poorest type possible. Only the rank amateur says, "Take the next three pages," and thinks that she has made a real lesson assignment. Assignments should usually be made in the form of problems, as: "Read until you find out what Hans traded for next, and how he prospered by that deal," or "To-morrow you may bring to class all the information you can about where New England secures materials for manufacturing." An assignment by topic is permissible, and assignments for drill work may sometimes refer to the time to be used or the quantity of work to be done, but the most common form of assignment should be the problem or project form.

The Supervision of Study. — At least one period of fifteen minutes should be used by the teacher each day in supervising the study of pupils. This supervised study period should be at different hours on different days. In this period each child is silently engaged upon his own work, and the teacher passes from one to another. The teacher at this time discovers who is having difficulty, and gains a knowledge of wrong habits and incorrect methods of work. Help can then be given immediately or further information supplied in future recitations.

An older pupil should be permitted to act as monitor for the supervision of primary seat work. These monitors should be changed frequently, and pupils should

feel it an honor to be selected for this work. Whenever possible monitors should be elected by the school rather than appointed by the teacher.

There is no better time for training in the use of the dictionary and encyclopedia than the supervised study period. Pupils need to know certain necessary, everyday facts, but they need also to be taught where and how to obtain additional information. Pupils should be taught how to use the dictionary and encyclopedia, and should be required to form the habit of consulting both whenever necessary. This training has been much neglected in rural schools and devolves upon the teacher. Supervised study is an excellent means of furnishing proper training in thinking.

Summary. — This chapter has been devoted to the subject of training pupils in methods of study. Since studying involves thinking, pupils must be taught to think. Real study must be guided by an aim, must possess interest, must produce concentrated attention, and must have its results tested. The teacher directs the work of the pupils through the recitation, the lesson assignments and the supervised laboratory and study periods. She must understand the nature of genuine study and definitely plan for its training through each of these means.

EXERCISES

1. How can a teacher, by studying with a pupil, help him to develop proper habits of independent study?
2. From a close observation of your own study discover where your habits of work are faulty. Bring to class this analysis with plans to prevent your pupils from falling into the same wrong or wasteful habits.

3. Give some reasons for individual assignments and for group assignments. Write an assignment of each type.
4. Show how the occasional use of the open textbook during recitation periods may train pupils in proper methods of study.
5. Write out examples of three types of faulty questions frequently used in the classroom, telling what is wrong with each.
6. Make a lesson plan containing two thought-provoking questions.
7. Give an illustration of thoughtful study induced by the use of the problem method of teaching.
8. Prepare a written list of some aims which little children can actually feel and desire for their first reading lessons.
9. Make three lesson assignments, each of which contains a problem which furnishes a sufficient motive for study.

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CHAPTER XII

THE RURAL SCHOOL LIBRARY

Why a library is needed

- Books as tools
- The reading habit
- Books bring pleasure
- Books unite school and community
- Books promote industry

Why some libraries are failures

- Unsuitable books
- Worthless books

What a school library should contain

- Much primary material
- Supplementary books for each grade
- Rural-minded books
- Good literature of varied types
- Some books for the use of the teacher
- A few books for the neighborhood
- Magazines and bulletins

Characteristics of a good rural school library

- Large
- Constantly used
- Working
- Source of pleasure
- Growing
- Well cared for

How to obtain books

- Purchased from school funds
- Traveling libraries
- Donations of books
- Donations of money
- Earning the money

How to use the library

- Skill and speed in silent reading
- Training in the habit of reading
- Reducing the number of classes
- Supplying supplementary material
- Essential for the problem method
- Teaching pupils to care for books
- Arousing community interest
- Aid to school management

Summary

Why a Library is Needed. — *Books as Tools.* — In order to do good work in study, the pupils need tools with which to work. Books are the chief tools which boys and girls use at present in their work of acquiring an education. Modern methods of teaching require a stock of supplementary books, for pupils cannot be trained in proper methods of study when confined to a single textbook. We need books, well-selected books, and plenty of them in acquiring education for the work of life.

The Reading Habit. — Pupils need not only to use books while in school, but also to form habits of seeking for information from books. No matter what business these children may follow later in life, they will work more effectively if they have formed the habit of reading. Agriculture, modern industry, and the professions, all require that their workers be informed upon the latest methods. Thus a good library in the rural school supplies the present need of the pupils by furnishing them material with which to work, and it also supplies a future need by training them in a habit which is of universal use.

Books Bring Pleasure. — We need a library in every rural school that will be a source of pleasure both to the school and to the community. Rural life students have

generally agreed that the rural problem is the problem of keeping a standard people upon the farm. One of the chief reasons for the migration of intelligent people from the farm is the loneliness and lack of pleasure and recreation in country life.

There can be no doubt but that keen pleasure can be found in the reading of good books, and that too many country people do not avail themselves of this pleasure. One reason for this is that the reading habit has not been formed in youth. Another is that the seeking of pleasure is regarded as childish by the average practical farmer. There seems to be a puritanic prejudice against pleasure-seeking in the minds of many country people who regard it as foolish for grown people to engage in anything for mere recreation. The rural teacher must prove the usefulness of books to the adults of her community, but the pleasure to be gained from reading can and should be emphasized with the pupils of the school.

There are four particular reasons why the pleasure that comes from the enjoyment of good books should belong to every country boy and girl. First, this form of pleasure is possible for all. Many forms of pleasure are impossible to dwellers in the country. Athletic contests, for example, are possible only in favored country neighborhoods because of the usual scarcity of young people of the same size and age. Bad roads prevent large social gatherings during the season when the farm family has the most leisure. Art galleries, theaters, concerts, grand opera, and many other forms of recreation must always be more or less rare in the lives of country people. But at every season of the year, all members of the farmer's family can enjoy the kind of books they

like to read — if they have ever learned really to *like* any kind.

Next, reading is a convenient type of pleasure. Since rural free delivery has become widespread and books can be sent by parcels post, reading is one of the few pleasures that can be conveniently enjoyed by country people all the year round.

Moreover good books offer variety. There is a kind to fit every taste. Indeed, some magazines offer such a varied table of contents that often one copy suits many tastes. So, with humorous books, serious books, story books, books of travel, histories, science, and poetry — surely, all can find some kind of books that will afford them real pleasure. Indeed, there are very few readers who do not honestly enjoy books of many different kinds.

Then, reading is an inexpensive pleasure, since it costs less in time, health, and money than most other pleasures. Many kinds of pleasure cost dearly, too dearly, in health and strength. Good plays, lectures, concerts, and operas are all expensive — too expensive for people of moderate means to enjoy frequently, especially since country people must add the cost of a trip to the city to the price of the tickets. Travel is another costly pleasure. Books, however, cost but little, the best frequently costing the least. Besides one reading does not destroy the pleasure of literature, for good books can be read with enjoyment again and again.

Considering, then, how few pleasures many country people have, when a pleasure is found that is possible, convenient, varied and inexpensive, it should surely be

one that is generally enjoyed. The country school must do its part, therefore, by forming and fostering the reading habit among the younger children. In order to do this, however, a large and well-selected library is needed. People must know books before they can learn to enjoy them.

Books Unite School and Community. — Another reason for having a good library in every school is that books are an important means of uniting the school and the community. Anything that arouses the interest of the neighborhood in the school is likely to prove helpful. The country school library should contain some books selected with this end in view.

Books Promote Industry. — A well-selected, constantly used library is also a great aid in promoting the habit of industry in the schoolroom. The two classes of pupils who are most difficult to keep employed are those of unusually bright mind who finish their assigned work quickly and then look about them for something else to do, and the unusually dull or retarded pupils who fail to be interested in their work because of its great difficulty. Plenty of supplementary material will help solve the problem in both these cases. The child who is deeply interested in a book is never troublesome to his neighbor. If the library met no other need than this, it would be worth all the labor of obtaining the books and giving them the necessary care.

Why Some Libraries are Failures. — *Unsuitable Books.* — Many of the bookcases in our country schools to-day are filled with unused and, in many instances, useless books. The examination of these unused libraries reveals two chief faults. One is that the library con-

tains many books suitable only for grown people who have been well educated. Such books as Emerson's *English Traits* and Carlyle's *Sartor Resartus* have been found on the book shelves of rural schools whose most advanced classes were in the fifth or sixth grade. The school library, like the school itself, exists for the sake of the children, and the books it contains should be books that children can read and will read.

Worthless Books. — The other fault is that of having a library containing neither accurate works of reference nor real literature. Of the two, the shelves filled with sentimental, nature-faking, melodramatic trash that the pupils will read should be preferred to rows of unused grown-up classics that they cannot and will not attempt. The worthless books will at least give them some skill and speed in reading, while unread books are absolutely useless. But surely, considering the many good lists of books that are published to-day and the many extension departments of normal schools, colleges, and state library commissions which are ready, and even anxious, to help teachers select books, there is no excuse for having either type of library.

What a School Library Should Contain. — *Much Primary Material.* — Since pupils should form the reading habit as early as possible, the first requirement for a school library is that it contain plenty of easy reading material. Fully one-half the books should be those that can be read by pupils of the first three grades. Since primary books are least expensive, this will probably mean that about one-fourth of the amount expended will go to the purchase of easy books. Books intended for third grade are frequently read with interest by

pupils of the fourth, fifth and sixth grades, especially in schools where reading matter has been limited.

Supplementary Books for Each Grade. — The library should contain books for each grade, and books that provide supplementary material in all school subjects. With the idea of making a working library, which can be used in training pupils to study, and depended upon for some of the educative seat work, teachers must place upon the shelves sets of books for class use. These should not only be supplementary readers, though there should be several sets of these, but sets of books to supplement the work of history, geography, and other subjects.

Rural-minded Books. — Books that have been written especially for rural schools should be placed in the library and used to the fullest extent. Whenever possible, we should use the books that have a "rural slant." Every country school library should contain enough copies for class use of such books as Calfee's *Farm Arithmetic*, and Field and Nearing's *Community Civics*. (See Appendix, section II.) It is to be regretted that there are so few books of this type, but with the attention of the nation turned to the rural school as never before, more will appear soon.

Good Literature of Varied Types. — A good country school library must contain much good literature of varied kinds. From Mother Goose jingles, folk tales, and other primary literature up through the grades, there should be examples of the best types of children's literature, well illustrated and attractively bound.

Some Books for the Use of the Teacher. — Every rural school library should contain a few books for the use of the teacher unless the county or district provides a

teachers' library. So long as country teachers' salaries remain inadequate their equipment should be supplemented by books belonging to the school or furnished by the school authorities. Plan-books, books containing industrial material and seat work devices, and similar aids should be provided for the teacher's use. These should not be purchased from library funds, however, until the library has been well supplied with books for the use of the pupils.

A Few Books for the Neighborhood. — Some books should be supplied, also, for neighborhood use. In most communities, however, this should be a very small proportion of the library. Where adults have never formed the habit of reading for pleasure, there is little use in providing books to meet this need. The practical books in agriculture, current events and other similar subjects, purchased to supplement the work of the upper grades, will, no doubt, prove interesting to many of the parents.

Magazines and Bulletins. — Part of the money raised for library purposes should be used in subscribing for a few good magazines. Much excellent material for rural libraries costs nothing. Every country school library should contain bulletins from the Department of Agriculture and the Bureau of Education in Washington, from the agricultural extension departments of the state universities, from state boards of health and from other similar sources. This material should not be left upon the shelves and neglected because it costs nothing. These bulletins should be employed by advanced pupils in their class work and read and used by the people of the neighborhood.

Characteristics of a Good Rural School Library. — In short, to be really good, a rural school library should have the following characteristics:

First. — It should be *large*. Walter Barnes, in his *English in the Country School*, says we have been entirely too modest in our demands as to the number of books needed. He states that the smallest number of books contained in the average country school library should not be less than one hundred and that five hundred is not a book too many.

Second. — It should be a *constantly used* library. If there is any book upon the shelves that the children cannot be induced to read, the teacher should be authorized to send it to a secondhand book store and exchange it for some book the pupils need and will use.

Third. — It should be a *working* library, selected largely to supplement the work of the school. It should be constantly used as a tool in the work of securing an education.

Fourth. — It should be a *source of pleasure* and pride to the school and the community. Only as children learn to enjoy books, will they develop the habit of reading for pleasure.

Fifth. — It should be a *growing* library. New books that are worth while are being published constantly, and a very large number of good books for children are already in existence. Not all the best books can be placed in any rural school library, but some good new books can be added each year, and this must be done if the library is to be the most useful.

Sixth. — The books must be *well cared for*, and there must be a systematic record kept of all books that are

taken from the school building. It is the teacher's duty to see that this is done. A pupil from one of the advanced grades may be appointed librarian, but the teacher must see that the books are neither misused nor lost.

How to Obtain Books. — *Purchased from School Funds.* — Granting, then, that the rural school requires a library, and that the teacher knows what it should contain, how are the books to be secured? There can be no doubt but that the library should be regarded as an essential part of the equipment of every school, and that money should be taken each year from school funds by the proper authorities for replenishing and increasing the stock of reading material. In many sections of the country, however, this is not done, sometimes because the existing libraries are uncared for and largely unused. This in turn is due partly to the nature of the books found therein, and partly to the fact that teachers have not known how to cultivate the reading habit among their pupils.

School boards should purchase at least a dictionary, an encyclopedia and a bookcase for each rural school. But where there is indifference on the part of the board of trustees, teachers must overcome the situation by proving that they know how to obtain books, how to care for them and how to use them. A good library is essential to good teaching and wherever the value of books is demonstrated to the local school authorities, the way will be paved for the later use of school funds for library purposes.

Traveling Libraries. — In many states traveling libraries are provided for the use of rural schools. Some-

times these are purchased and sent out by the state, county or district, and sometimes by the extension departments of normal schools or colleges. If such a library is available, the opportunity should certainly be utilized. If a school has no library, or only a useless one, the traveling library can be used until the school is properly supplied with books. But even when a rural school has a good library, which is well used, such a demand for books should be created that the traveling library will be more than welcome.

Donations of Books. — Some teachers try to obtain and replenish the school library by donations of books. This is usually the poorest possible method. As the books have not been purchased for school library purposes, most of them are unsuitable. Then, frequently, people give away only the books which have proved useless in the home. Sometimes old-time textbooks in high school or college subjects are found on the shelves of a rural school library. Upon inquiry, one will usually discover that these books have been donated and teachers fear to offend the donor if they attempt to exchange them for usable books. While gifts of suitable books should never be refused, people should not often be asked to give books to the school library.

Donations of Money. — Donations of money, to be used for the purchase of library books, are less objectionable. However, if the money is to come directly from the homes of the pupils, it seems better to let the books purchased be the personal property of the pupils. It is much less objectionable for each pupil to earn a sum of money to be donated to a library fund. Money gifts from former teachers or pupils, like free-will offer-

ings of books, should be gladly received and used, but never requested.

Earning the Money. — Until the school authorities realize their responsibilities in this matter, the best plan seems to be for the school as a body, under the leadership of the teacher and with the coöperation of the neighborhood, to earn the money. There are two ways in general use for the school to use — entertainments and socials. At least one of each should be given each term for the library fund, and the earnings should be spent immediately with thoughtful care.

When a social is given, the community can coöperate and should do so. Pie socials, ice cream festivals, chicken and waffle suppers and similar affairs offer an opportunity to the adults of the community for assisting the school. Such socials should always be well advertised, the date being set and the announcement made some time before the event.

Entertainments should not be so difficult or elaborate that they will take much time from the recognized work of the school. Neither should they be too light, consisting largely of inane dialogues, or trashy plays. If possible, the program should have upon it something representing the work of the school. An original dramatization from history or literature, a creditable essay written and read by an upper grade pupil, or a tableau representing some event in local history — any of these would be suitable to use in a library entertainment. Many school journals contain good material for school entertainments.

The entertainment is preferable to the social as a means of earning money for libraries, because more of

the work can be done by the pupils themselves. Moreover, the presentation of a creditable entertainment furnishes valuable literary and social training to those who participate. If no money needed to be earned and no occasions for interesting the community needed to be offered, the school would still need to give entertainments occasionally for the sake of the training thus afforded to the pupils.

The school is not doing its duty, however, if no free socials and entertainments are given. This form of activity is essential for the social education of the pupils and for interesting the community in school affairs. By all means, let every rural school have several free entertainments each term, but admission should be charged on at least two occasions and the proceeds used in buying well-selected, usable books for the school library.

How to Use the Library. — *Skill and Speed in Silent Reading.* — One of the chief advantages of a well-used library is that it gives pupils skill and speed in silent reading. Hughes, in his excellent book on the teaching of reading, says that any teacher who, by drill for speed in silent reading, can induce a pupil to read in four minutes what would otherwise have taken him five has accomplished wonderful results. For this gain means that one-fifth of the pupil's time in all the later grades, high school, and college, has thus been saved. It was formerly thought that slow reading meant greater care and accuracy, but experiments have proved that those who read most rapidly have the most accurate idea of what they have read. This skill and speed can come only through practice, and this practice calls constantly for new reading matter.

Training in the Habit of Reading. — A second use of the library is to train pupils in the habit of reading both for pleasure and for information. Many children have formed the habit of reading with ease and pleasure at the age of eight years. This gives them great advantages over those who form the habit later in life. One advantage is that there are certain literary classics that can be properly enjoyed and appreciated only by children. The mother or primary teacher who has not read fairy stories and nonsense rhymes in her own childhood is greatly handicapped in her attempts to train children. Many students have been seriously hindered when grown, because they had not formed the reading habit in early youth.

Reducing the Number of Classes. — Another use of the rural school library is to reduce the number of classes by combination, using the sets of supplementary readers and informational readers provided in the library for this purpose. This is a great help in avoiding the usual crowded program. Books selected for this purpose should be bought in sets large enough so that each pupil of the combined class may have a book. Study from these books should be done in school. Content readers or children's classics, such as *Pinnochio*, are preferable for intermediate and grammar grade pupils to use in combination classes. If fifth grade pupils are required to read from a third reader, some one frequently objects. These same pupils, however, have no prejudices toward *Little People of Many Lands* or *Robin Hood's Adventures* which are easier than most third readers. Since speed is gained by reading very easy material, the supplementary readers should be easier than the textbooks.

THE LIBRARY IN A MODERN RURAL SCHOOL

Note the various purposes for which books from the library are being used, namely: a socialized lesson in reading, group use of reference books, and library period for seat work.



If the upper grade classes are using *Our Neighborhood* as a content reader in a combination class, it reduces the number of reading classes and also removes civics from the daily program. For these reasons, the rural school should use some informational readers for combined classes.

Supplying Supplementary Material. — A working library adds interest to the daily recitations by supplying material to supplement the textbooks. Many textbooks have few good pictures, and in such cases the illustrations found in the library books make facts more easily understood. It is much easier also to correlate the different subjects, if there is a good supply of the latest and best books written upon the various subjects. Some of the best books, such as the primitive life series by Dopp, are excellent because they provide educational seat work. The library should be constantly used to supplement the daily school work.

Essential for the Problem Method. — A library is essential to the satisfactory use of the problem method of teaching. If pupils are to be trained in correct habits of study, if they are to develop initiative and power to select and organize facts, the school must furnish sources from which they may acquire the necessary facts. Moreover, some of the best new textbooks contain problems and projects that make the use of modern teaching methods both easy and necessary. Such projects are suggestive to the teacher, and cause pupils to do more thoughtful study.

Teaching Pupils to Care for Books. — A library should also be used to teach pupils in thoughtful care and reverence for good books. Since the pupils have earned

the money to buy these new books, since the books are clean, brightly-colored, well illustrated, and in every way desirable, the teacher should avail herself of this favorable opportunity for teaching some essentials about their care. Pupils should be taught how to open a new book properly and shown how the binding is torn by rough usage. An old dog-eared textbook may be used as an illustration of the wrong way to turn the leaves. It is desirable for library books to be used so frequently that they become worn out and need to be replaced, but the life of a popular book will be much longer when all pupils are taught correct ways of opening and handling books, and when the teacher sees to it that these lessons are put into practice. Neatness and thrift are both habits of general usefulness, and the wise teacher will miss no opportunity for training pupils in the application of these virtues to many varied situations. By all means let pupils be taught the proper methods of handling books and then required to use these methods.

Arousing Community Interest. — A wide-awake teacher can use the library to arouse community interest in the work of the school. It is desirable that the community should coöperate in making the school a success, and the whole neighborhood will need to be interested in order to carry out the project of earning money for a school library. After this interest has once been created, it can be used to meet other needs of the school. If a social is to be given by the school, the teacher must reach the parents and invite them to help. Because the need of a library is so apparent, this project makes a good beginning in arousing community co-operation. The earning of money to meet any need of

the school is a project in which the whole community should be interested. Utilize this interest to improve the school.

Aid to School Management. — And finally, there is no better aid to good school management than a large and well selected library. Idleness is the chief foe of social conduct, and many pupils are idle only because no interesting employment is provided for them. If children are taught to enjoy reading and have plenty of interesting books to read, there will be few idle moments and, as a consequence, much less friction and waste. Books will be an incentive to the little pupils to learn to read, because some of their time can be spent looking at the pretty colored pictures. Older pupils will concentrate more upon their studies if they know that an interesting story may be read, when their work has been well done. Lessons once dull and uninteresting become absorbing when illustrated and explained by books from the library. The library would justify its existence if it answered no other need than that of offering employment for time that would otherwise be wasted. Since this employment can be made both profitable and pleasant, the value of the library cannot be overestimated.

Summary. — We have considered the rural school library under four main groupings: why it is needed, what it should contain, how it should be acquired, and some of its uses. A library meets the needs of the school because it aids pupils in their present work, establishes the reading habit, furnishes pure and uplifting pleasure, unites school and community, and aids in school management. Every school library should contain many books

for primary grades, some books for each grade, books to supplement all the school subjects, sets of supplementary readers, both literary and informational, a varied supply of good literature for children, and a few books for the use of the teacher and the community. The library may be bought and increased with money supplied from school funds, traveling libraries may be used, or money may be earned by the school through entertainments or socials. The uses of a rural school library are numerous: 1. The library gives pupils skill and speed in silent reading. 2. It gives opportunity for acquiring and cultivating the reading habit. 3. A working library reduces the number of classes upon the daily program by furnishing books for combination classes. 4. It adds interest to the daily recitations by the use of supplementary books in the various subjects. 5. It helps the teacher in the use of the problem method of teaching and gives opportunity for the correlation of subjects. 6. Its proper use furnishes training in the care of books. 7. The acquiring of a library, as well as its use, fosters community coöperation. 8. The library is an aid in school management, because it provides an educative occupation for idle moments.

EXERCISES

1. Give an illustration of correlation in rural schools made possible by the use of a school library.
2. Test yourself by some standard test to discover your speed of silent reading. How much more rapidly do you read silently than orally? If you read very rapidly, was this skill gained in a rural school?
3. List the books of some neglected school library.
4. Show how the possession of attractive books may be used as an incentive for reading.

5. Choose the affirmative or negative side, and prepare an outline for debate on the following: "*Resolved*: That a pupil should never be deprived of library privileges because of misconduct."
6. Name ten books that you have known to be favorites of the pupils in some rural school or similar group of children.
7. Name some methods of raising money for libraries, other than those mentioned in this chapter, which you think could be successfully used. Describe one such method in detail.
8. Plan an entertainment to arouse community interest in the school library.
9. Give three ways by which a library may be used to enliven the morning exercises.
10. Relate an instance of community coöperation secured through the library.

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CHAPTER XIII

RECESS AND THE NOON INTERMISSION

- Reasons for playground supervision
- Opportunity for building moral character
 - Courage
 - Perseverance
 - Obedience to law
 - Care for the weak
- Social qualities to be fostered through play
 - Initiative
 - Leadership
 - Coöperation
- Physical education
- Teachers responsible for directing play
- Two good games
 - Arch ball
 - Pass the hoop
- Summary

Reasons for Playground Supervision. — After studying the management of the varied activities of a rural school for the five and one-half hours it is in session, it will surely be worth while to give some time and attention to the other two hours devoted to recesses and the noon intermission. Many teachers act as though the burden of responsibility had been lifted from their shoulders when the pupils are dismissed for intermissions. This feeling of freedom exists despite the fact that the most serious offenses with which teachers have to deal, obscene language, swearing, and fighting, frequently have their origin upon the playground. As a

mere matter of self-protection, therefore, teachers should supervise all playground periods, in order to prevent trouble.

But important as is the prevention of all unnecessary misconduct, this is the least of the reasons for playground supervision. The playground is the best place in the world to do effective teaching along three lines — teaching for which place and opportunity are difficult to find. This teaching is more important than any that can be done from textbooks, for it is upon the playground that the teacher has her best opportunity to give pupils valuable moral guidance, to afford them social training and to direct their physical education.

Opportunity for Building Moral Character. — The purpose of our schools is to make better citizens. Moral character is the backbone of good citizenship. Nowhere are there better opportunities for character building than on the playground. "We learn to do by doing," and the child upon the playground, in the midst of activity that is natural to him, can be more effectively guided in right doing than at any other time or in any other place. Habits of courage, perseverance, obedience to law, and care for the weak, are easily started and strengthened here.

Courage. — The child who is naturally timid, or whose early training has made him a cowardly "cry-baby," may, after a few bumps of some teasing from thoughtless schoolmates, stop trying to play and become a sort of outcast. If a kind, thoughtful teacher is at hand to pick him up with a cheerful, "That didn't hurt much! Better luck next time!" the cry-baby may soon be reformed. The child who gains courage from

his play may have the attitude transferred to his work by the suggestion of the teacher who knows of instances in which he has shown courage upon the playground.

Perseverance. — So it is with perseverance. Most children naturally exhibit this quality in their games and plays. No apparent weariness from frequent repetition is shown there. The gradual gaining of skill in an activity seems to furnish endless joy upon the playground. An observant teacher should learn from this that the way to have successful drill lessons is by making games of drills. Perseverance may have great moral value, and it certainly can become habitual through directed playground activities.

Obedience to Law. — Nearly every teacher has known boys who were absolutely unruly at home and decidedly troublesome in the schoolroom, but who obeyed cheerfully, immediately, and without question, when the captain of a baseball team or playground director gave a command. The reason for this different attitude may be readily found. Every boy knows that if he does not "play fair" and obey the rules of the game he will not be permitted to play. Since such instances are well known, it surely follows that the playground is an excellent place to begin the teaching of obedience.

Care for the Weak. — On a playground that is absolutely unsupervised, most children will get something of the first three moral lessons. The teacher needs only to see that the exceptional child receives the needed training, and to help the children use in their other activities the lessons learned upon the playground. When it comes to the training in care for the weak,

however, more definite teaching is needed. On many unsupervised playgrounds the children who are little, timid, foreign, or ragged, are shamefully neglected, teased and mistreated. Surely no just teacher would knowingly permit such cruelty; and the knowledge of this state of affairs can be easily gained by the teacher who is on the playground herself. The mere presence of the teacher will often check the misconduct of the bully, while the teacher's reproof of unkind actions and the teacher's example of kindness and protection for the weak will prevent the ordinary child from thoughtless cruelty.

Social Qualities to be Fostered Through Play.—Three desirable social qualities that may be fostered by play are: Initiative, leadership, and coöperation. Someone has defined initiative as "The ability to originate, the aptitude to develop and undertake new enterprises." With this definition in mind, one can readily see that play is an excellent school in which to develop this valuable quality.

Initiative.—There is a feeling among farm people that city children need play for the sake of exercise, but that since their children get exercise enough in walking to and from school and in doing farm chores, play is unnecessary in the country — indeed, rather foolish. This is a mistaken idea, because there is a wide difference between play and exercise. Of the two, play has far greater educative value. Play means, in addition to exercise, a certain amount of freedom in choosing, planning, and carrying out plans. It is under such conditions that pupils have their best opportunity for gaining power of initiative.

J. H. Boatman, Associate Professor of Rural Education, Iowa State Teachers College, in a recent bulletin put out by his institution, says:

Initiative is the highest priced capacity that any man or woman has to sell in the open market of the world. The writer's experience on many school playgrounds leads him to believe that the children who have the least aptitude for play, and who have had the least opportunity to develop by it, are the children of the farm. These children often have the native capacity to profit most by free play. They need the opportunity to plan and originate new enterprises and execute them freely on the playground and to develop their powers of initiative, which do not develop as fully in doing the set tasks of the farm under the close supervision of father and mother.

Leadership. — One might think that leadership could not be cultivated by the pupils if the teacher is always present on the playground. If the teacher should always act as leader and if the pupils always played in one group, this would be more or less true. But the teacher should often be only a playfellow, encouraging leadership among the pupils in all games with which they are familiar. For this reason it is wise to play games the pupils are used to playing according to their rules rather than to suggest changes authorized by some game book. If the school is large enough to permit the pupils to play in two groups, this should often be done. The little children will care for some games too easy and simple to interest their older brothers and sisters. In case of such a division, some pupil must always be the leader of one group and often an older pupil will enjoy the direction of the little folks' games. Rural life needs leaders, and no opportunity for training in leadership should be neglected or wasted.

Coöperation. — Modern social and industrial life puts a premium on power to coöperate. To work or play well in groups, to be "a good mixer," to subordinate self to the good of the group, becomes of increased value as social life becomes more complex. Nowhere can the value of teamwork be better taught than in playing games that require groups and are governed by standard rules. Writers on rural sociology and rural economics agree that one of the greatest barriers to rural progress to-day is the lack of coöperation among rural people. Since this is the condition, farm children need to be trained for coöperation by playing games that require the cultivation of the group spirit.

Physical Education. — In addition to these valuable opportunities for moral and social training, playground supervision offers the rural teacher her best chance to direct the physical education of her pupils. The teacher must have a twofold aim in this important work. Games should be played which will correct the most common defects, as stooped shoulders, and others should be selected which will give grace and agility to the players. Besides increasing the efficiency of each pupil by building up his general health, well-directed play should result in an erect carriage and sprightly movement which will prove valuable social and economic assets.

It is a severe indictment against our system of education that a child is allowed to proceed through the grades, high school and college, working under a constant strain because of cramped breathing capacity due to round shoulders. It is a disgrace that the strong sturdy boy or girl from the farming districts should be hampered socially, sometimes even professionally, be-

cause of a logy, "clod-hopper" walk. That physical training can correct these defects and does so, even in grown men, has been amply proved by the transformed physical appearance of conscripted soldiers who have returned from the cantonments. Since "setting-up exercises" and other forms of directed physical education have worked such marked improvements in adults in a few months time, surely there is no reason for permitting defects of this type to become fixed habits among school children.

Teachers Responsible for Directing Play. — Since play has such educative value, teachers should feel responsible for knowing its value and for directing the games at recesses, just as they do for knowing any school subject, and for directing schoolroom activities. The young woman who sits at a teacher's desk in a poorly ventilated room during noon intermission and works at some bit of fancy work is not only injuring her own health and making her afternoon's teaching less efficient; she is wasting an opportunity for doing vital teaching and is setting a bad example to the girls of her upper grades, who are at the age when outdoor activity is especially needed. The young man teacher who uses the noon hour for reading or study is equally mistaken and should be reproved for a serious neglect of his duty.

Children of all ages should enjoy play, and country children will play with as much zest as the pupils of city schools when they have been taught interesting games of sufficient variety. Every rural teacher should own and study at least three books on games. Two of the least expensive are: *Children's Old and New Singing*



PLAY AND PROJECTS IN A MODERN RURAL SCHOOL

Scenes from the Experimental Rural School maintained by Teachers College, Columbia University, in Warren County, New Jersey.

Games, by Marie Hofer, published by A. Flanagan Co., Chicago, and costing fifty cents, and Johnson's *What to Do at Recess*, published by Ginn & Company, New York, and costing twenty-five cents. An excellent bulletin on plays for the school ground is published by the Office of Indian Affairs. It is called *Social Plays, Games, Marches, etc., for Use in Indian Schools*, and may be obtained by sending ten cents in coin to the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.

Two Good Games. — Two games that are excellent for correcting stooped shoulders are *Arch Ball* and *Pass the Hoop*. Both games may be played either indoors or out and by any even number.¹

Arch Ball. — In Arch Ball the school is divided into two equal groups. The players stand in a column, facing in the same direction. The leader of each column holds an indoor baseball in both hands extended above his head.² At a given signal the ball is passed backward with both hands. Each player receives the ball with both hands and passes it backward over his head in the same fashion. When the ball reaches the last player in the column he runs to the head of the line, each player in the column taking a long step backward meanwhile to keep the line in the same position. The new leader loses no time in starting the ball back over his head again. This is continued until the leader of one column

¹ This may be secured at any time by the teacher acting as director or play-fellow as needed.

² An indoor baseball is about five inches in diameter, much softer than a baseball, and leather covered. Each rural school should have at least two. They may be purchased from A. G. Spalding & Co., New York, or some other dealer in athletic equipment, the price varying from fifty cents to one dollar each, depending upon the quality.

is again at the head of the line, when his column is declared the winner.

Pass the Hoop. — Pass the Hoop is played with two lines in similar formation. Instead of indoor baseballs, however, the game is played with two ordinary wooden barrel hoops wound with cloth to prevent catching upon hair or clothing. The leader of each column holds his hoop in the left hand above his head, his right arm being held close to his body. When the signal is given the hoop is slipped down over the body with the left hand. The player steps out of the hoop, without allowing it to touch the floor or ground, and passes it backward over the head with the left hand to the next player. When the hoop reaches the last player he runs to the head of the column as in the former game. When the leader of one line is again at the head of the column, that side is declared winner. To correct stooping shoulders, the hoop should be passed first with the left hand, then with the right, as the leader of the line is changed.

There are many other games that will be both enjoyable and beneficial to the pupils of any rural school. When teachers are awake to the educational value of play, get the play spirit themselves, and make an effort to become successful playground supervisors, their prospects for success as teachers are greatly magnified. May the day be hastened when the rural teachers of America learn how to enjoy play, and how to pass this joy on to their pupils!

Summary. — This chapter deals with the moral, social, and physical values of supervised play. Upon the playground the teacher has an opportunity to train her pupils in habits of courage, perseverance, obedience

to law, and protection of the weak. These are all habits of great moral value, essential to the highest type of citizenship. Some of the desirable social habits that can be fostered upon the playground are the habit of coöperation through the give and take of the group game, initiative through the freedom of the play spirit, and leadership through the inauguration and direction of group activities. Games for physical education should be largely of a corrective nature, designed to straighten crooked backs and rounded shoulders. Some games planned to give grace and agility are needed to correct the typical logy walk, so common in some rural districts.

EXERCISES

1. Bring in written lists of the games that are known and played by the pupils of some rural schools with which you are familiar.
2. Name three benefits derived from playground supervision which are not mentioned in this chapter.
3. State the most serious hindrances to the wider use of play in your community, giving a means of overcoming each.
4. Describe one game you would teach your upper grades, one suitable for the youngest pupils, and one that has corrective value.
5. Plan a program for a play day festival and athletic meet to be given by two or three rural schools joining forces.
6. Bring to class all the information that a teacher needs regarding the "Athletic Badge Tests" inaugurated by the Playground and Recreation Association of America, 1 Madison Avenue, New York.
7. Draw a map of a modern school playground indicating the position of such playground apparatus as you would want for a rural school.
8. Outline a talk on "The Educational Values of Play" to be given at a meeting of your local Parent-Teacher Association or School Improvement League.
9. Plan for an evening of old-time games, telling just how you would procure the games, and what benefits you would expect the school to derive from the successful rendition of such a program.

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CHAPTER XIV

THE SCHOOL PLAYGROUND

- Need of playground space
- Sanitary toilets
- Drinking water
- Playground equipment
 - Giant stride
 - Seesaw
 - Sand bin
 - Running track and jumping pit
- Circle-dodge-ball
- Volley ball
- Effects of playground supervision
- Summary

Need of Playground Space. — Since all games are much more valuable when played outdoors, a playground is necessary. It is a fact, however, that there are many rural schools so located that there is no ground large enough to serve as a playground for the entire school. Dr. F. B. Dresslar, school sanitation specialist of the Bureau of Education, says: "I have just made a survey of more than twelve hundred rural schools in nineteen different states, and have found that less than fifteen per cent of them are furnished with playgrounds large enough to enable the children to play with any degree of freedom and vigor. One of the greatest needs of the country school is just this one of larger grounds." Henry S. Curtis, a well-known playground specialist, says: "The city schools are now probably acquiring

twice as much ground for playgrounds as they were ten years ago. In congested sections these often cost forty or fifty thousand dollars an acre. In the country, on the other hand, there has been little improvement. I pass frequently through nearly every state in the Union, and I question if one per cent of the rural schools have grounds level and large enough for baseball. Yet the needs of the rural school are simple. It requires two or three acres of level turf for the games. If the school is also to furnish a baseball diamond and a picnic grove to the neighborhood, as it should do in most cases, it should have not less than five acres of ground, and the consolidated school should have at least ten."

When one compares the few square yards of rocky, marshy, or hilly land often provided, with the requirements laid down by playground experts, the contrast is certainly discouraging. Nevertheless, each teacher must begin the work of playground supervision with the sort of grounds now available, and so demonstrate the value of organized play to her community that an adequate amount of suitable land will be purchased for every school.

Sanitary Toilets. — It may seem irrelevant to discuss the matter of sanitary toilets in connection with the school playground, but it is a fact that most rural schools are equipped with outdoor privies at the present time, and very many of these buildings are unsightly and indecent, as well as unsanitary. The investigation of twelve hundred schools in nineteen different states made by Dr. Dresslar showed that only about one per cent of these rural schools had sanitary toilets. The rural schools of a typically progressive county in one of the

central states were recently examined by a committee of experts, who found that all the toilets in that county were earth privies.

Miss Carney, in *Country Life and the Country School*, says:

Of all the barbarous features of our country schools, none can compare with the usual outbuilding. In some cases double buildings are still found, even though there may be a prohibitive state law to the contrary. Among school officers and teachers it is almost a unanimous decision that no other one influence is more suggestive of immorality and viciousness than the isolated outbuilding. In truth, the most civilizing influence that could possibly be procured for the average country school would be indoor toilets. But much can be done even now. In the first place, the buildings can be kept clean, and with the necessary boards and doors in place. They can be cared for in a sanitary way, and the vaults can be cleaned and disinfected with lump copperas or lime when necessary. The interior can be painted, thus covering up the inscriptions within, and a board screen can be placed before the entrance, over which vines may be trained. Children can be required to refrain from congregating in them and spending time in idle gossip as they often do. They can also learn that the walls are not to be used as blackboards for unsightly writing and sketches. It is certainly time for a campaign of morality regarding this matter of outbuildings.

The average rural toilet is not only a menace to the morals of the pupils, but it must be considered also because it threatens the health. Every teacher should know something of the construction of sanitary toilets. Some excellent bulletins on this subject are sent free by the United States Public Health Service, Washington, D. C. One of these is No. 37, called, "The Sanitary Privy, Its Purpose and Construction"; another is No. 89, "A Sanitary Privy System for Unsewered Towns and Villages." These bulletins should be carefully studied by every rural teacher, and the toilets as carefully

supervised as any other part of the school equipment. Since morals and health are both at stake, no teacher can afford to refrain from the endeavor to secure needed reforms because of false modesty.

Drinking Water.—Another matter that should be mentioned in connection with the playground is the supply of drinking water for the school. Every school ground should have a well, properly located and tiled, furnished with a pump, and a drain for surplus water. Each pupil should be required to bring his own drinking cup, and as far as possible the securing of drinks should be done at the recess or intermission periods. Where the school does not have a well, or where the well is open, or for some other reason the water is impure, the school should be furnished with a covered water cooler, which should be filled every morning and noon with fresh water from a sanitary well in the neighborhood. The pump upon the school grounds is more satisfactory, however, and every rural school should be so supplied.

Playground supervision may be begun without the purchase of any equipment. There are many good games, such as *Three Deep*, *The Jolly Miller*, *Partner Tag*, and *The Shoemaker*, which are new to the pupils of most rural schools. In fact, there is a remarkably small number of games played upon the ground of the average rural school. The teacher can, by the study of nearly any good game book, find many games that will be new and enjoyable to her pupils, and that can be played without any equipment being bought. Some of the best games, however, require some supplies that must be purchased.

Playground Equipment. — Usually the appreciation of the educative value of play must be of gradual growth. The first playground equipment, in most cases, must be constructed by the teacher and pupils, or bought with a part of the proceeds from a social or entertainment given by the school. After supervised play has proved its value, money for playground equipment can often be secured from the local school authorities.

Four useful pieces of playground equipment that have frequently been constructed by the teacher, with the aid of the older boys, are the giant stride, the seesaw, the sand bin and the jumping pit.

Giant Stride. — A giant stride is considered better than a swing for the school playground, because several children can use it at the same time, and there is no great danger of their getting hurt. Three easily procured articles are used in making the giant stride. These are: A stout pole of locust or hickory, eighteen or twenty feet long, with an average diameter of eight inches; a wagon wheel; and a coil of strong rope. The rim of the wagon wheel is covered by winding it with strips of unbleached muslin or similar cloth. The ends of these strips are sewed securely to prevent their unwinding. Then ropes three-fourths of an inch to one inch in diameter and five yards long are firmly tied to the rim between the spokes. The wagon wheel is next fastened to the top of the pole by its spindle, so it will rotate easily. The pole is then planted firmly in the ground at a depth of at least four feet. Each rope should have a loop at the lower end. The stride can be used by one child, or as many as the ropes will accommodate. The rotary motion is begun by the children's hanging

to the ropes and running around the pole in the same direction. Centrifugal force will soon take them off their feet part of the time, and they can either swing out or jump along as they desire. This is a very popular piece of playground apparatus.

Seesaw. — To construct seesaws make a support by placing a heavy timber across two stumps or strong posts, about two feet from the ground. Across this support place several boards, two feet wide, two inches thick, and twelve feet long. A number of cleats should be nailed on the underneath side of these boards, near the center, at varying intervals, so that the seesaw will not slip from the support. These cleats also make possible the use of the seesaw by pupils of widely different weights.

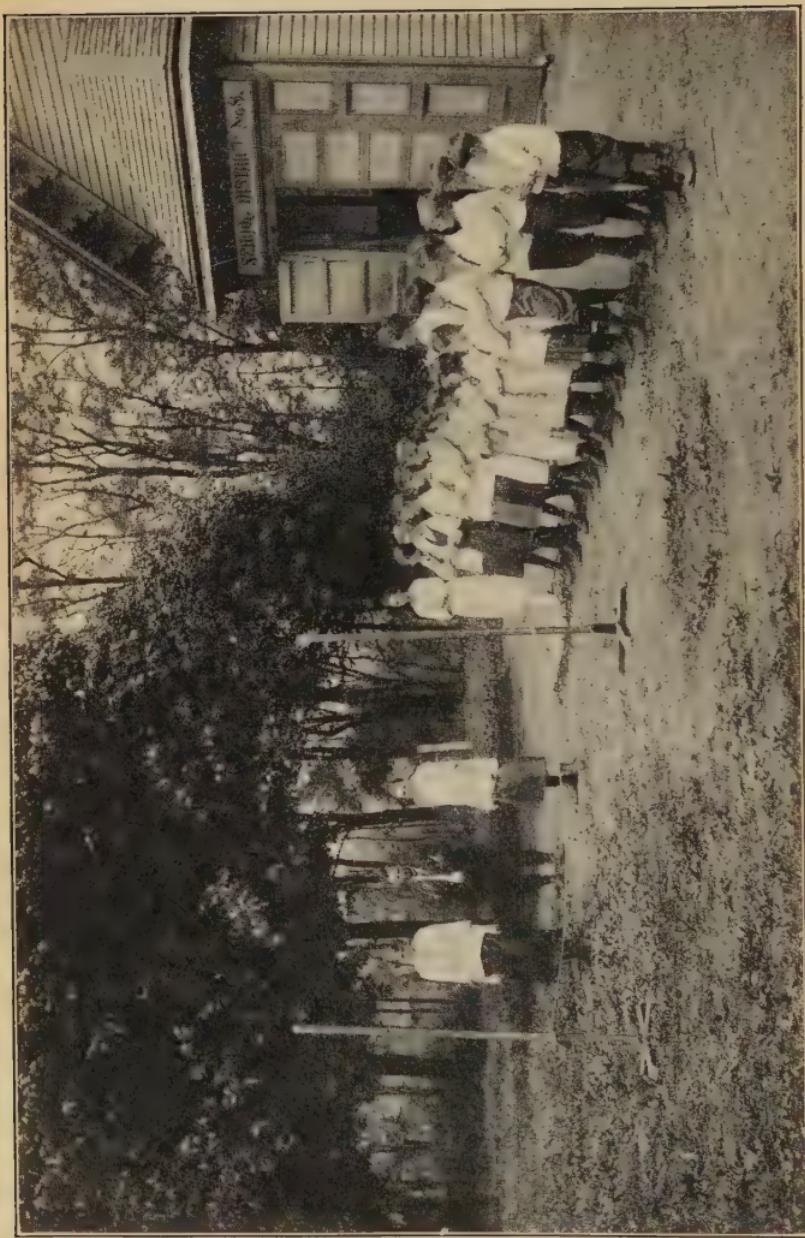
Sand Bin. — The sand bin should be about six by eight feet in size. It should be made of strong boards, ten inches to one foot high. The older boys will delight in constructing this for their small brothers and sisters. The lumber can often be found lying about the different farm homes, and sometimes the sand can be hauled by the older boys from a neighboring stream. Sand bins are for the younger pupils, who take great pleasure in their use.

Running Track and Jumping Pit. — The following description of a running track and jumping pit is quoted from *Play and Recreation for the Open Country*, by Henry S. Curtis:

Along by the fence it would be well to lay off a hundred-yard running track about ten or twelve feet wide, unless a smooth and unfrequented country road furnishes a satisfactory substitute. All children like to run races, and it is quite as good sport for the boy

PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN THE OPEN AIR

A rural school of Rockland County, New York, showing the use of jumping standards.



or girl of ten as it is for the college athlete. I am inclined to think, in fact, that the interest in running comes to a climax about ten and declines from then on. In the city playgrounds they are now putting in regular cinder tracks for the small people. This is not necessary in the country, as a dirt track is nearly as good if the soil is satisfactory. The track should be stripped of sod, dragged, and then rolled lightly, so as to make it springy. It may not be feasible to fix a hundred-yard running track twelve feet wide, but it is certainly easy and worth while to make a track sixty or seventy feet long and five or six feet wide, with a jumping pit at the end. If the running track is made, the jumping pit should be placed at the end of it. A take-off board should be set in the earth, level with the surface. The earth should be dug out for about fifteen feet, and some six inches of sand or other soft material filled in. The children should purchase or make a pair of jumping standards. These will require a substantial base and two uprights marked with feet and inches, and a series of holes for each inch, through which a peg can be run for supporting a string or crossbar. Generally, children enjoy the high jump more than the broad jump. All of this work can be done by the children except, possibly, the making of jumping standards, and even this is not very difficult for an ingenious boy. Work of this sort develops a natural interest, which makes it the best sort of manual training. So far as it is done by the child for the school and the other children it is practical training in social service as well.

Circle-Dodge-Ball. — Another good game for the rural schools is dodge ball. A circle is drawn on the ground thirty feet or more in diameter. Standard teams consist of ten players, but four or five can make the game interesting. The game is played by two teams, one of which stands around the outside of the circle, while the other is grouped anywhere within the circle. The object of the game is for the outer circle team to hit the players of the inner circle team with the ball, a player so hit being "out" and having to leave the game. Only one player can be hit on a thrown ball, which must be in the air when the player is hit. A ball striking the ground and bouncing up striking a player does not count as an

“out.” A referee, who should also keep the score, is needed, and a time-keeper may be essential in close contests.

The game starts on a whistled signal from the referee with the ball in the hands of the outer circle team. The referee blows his whistle for play to cease whenever an inner circle player is fairly touched with the ball, and again for play to resume. A player being hit fairly must leave the circle at once. The referee also signals when the “time limit” has expired. The players on the outer team must not step within the circle when throwing; if one does and an inner player be hit, it does not count. Inner team players must not step out of the circle under penalty of being put out of the game. The inner team does not play the ball, it only “dodges” it. The “dodging” may be done by stepping quickly in one direction or another. A game consists of two three-minute periods or “innings” for each team. One point should be scored for each member of the team remaining in the circle at the expiration of the time limit. The team which has had the greater number of members remaining in the circle at the expiration of halves or innings, wins. Should all members of both sides be retired before the expiration of the time limit of both innings, the team remaining “in” the longer period wins. The fact that one team remains in the circle longer in either inning does not change the final score.

Volley Ball. — Volley ball is also a good game for the rural school playground. It is usually played by tossing an indoor baseball or basketball over a tennis net placed seven feet high, but a rope, wire, or scantling, placed at the correct height will serve every purpose. Players of

any number or size may participate. The game is to keep the ball from touching the ground. If a ball tossed over the net is not returned, it counts one for the side tossing it. If the opponents knock it back and the serving side does not return it, the server is out. Twenty-one points complete the game. This game is good because it takes so little space and will accommodate any even number of players. As the ball is often twenty feet in the air, players must keep their heads up and shoulders back. Consequently, the game is one of the best correctives for the bad postures common to the schoolroom. Girls can play this game with the boys. It may take some little time for the children of a rural school to become skilled in volley ball, but it is worth any teacher's effort to introduce this game, and persist until it is mastered and enjoyed by all the pupils. After the pupils become skillful in playing the game, they are very enthusiastic about it, but the teacher must play with them and encourage them until this skill is attained.

Effects of Playground Supervision. — Some teachers seem to fear that playing with the pupils may cause trouble with discipline, but the opposite seems to be the case. The cordial feeling of good fellowship which follows when the teacher acts as play director and play-fellow makes that teacher so popular that her pupils give her little trouble. Pupils thus happily engaged upon the playground with their teacher find no time for immoral thoughts or deeds. Quarreling and gossiping disappear, and the whole school returns to the room to find renewed pleasure in the work, because excess energy has been turned into the right channel. The teacher

who believes in playground supervision and makes careful preparation for playground activities is making use of one of nature's greatest educational forces, as well as taking the best plan to gain easy mastery over her school.

Summary. — This chapter discusses the playground and its equipment. While it is entirely possible to have effective supervision of playground activities without any equipment when the teacher knows a large number of good games and teaches them with enthusiasm, some equipment is nevertheless desirable. The giant stride, seesaw, sand bin, and jumping pit have all been constructed by rural teachers, aided by the boys of the upper grades.

EXERCISES

1. What do you consider the most harmful feature of the average rural school toilets?
2. Inspect the water supply and toilet facilities in at least two rural schools, and write a report of their exact conditions, together with suggestions for improving these conditions.
3. If you know any rural school which does not have a convenient supply of pure drinking water, describe the situation, and tell how you would remedy the matter.
4. Describe the largest and best rural school playground you have ever seen; also the smallest and poorest.
5. Give two reasons for the omission of baseball from this chapter.
6. Tell in detail two different ways by which you have known schools to secure playground apparatus.
7. Write a detailed description of some home made bit of play equipment not mentioned in this chapter. Illustrate this by a drawing.
8. Make a list of the hygienic habits (such as the use of individual drinking cups and frequent washing of the hands) which you would regard as minimum essentials.
9. Show definitely how you would attempt to have these habits formed by the pupils of an average rural school.

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CHAPTER XV

THE HOT LUNCH

Advantages of the hot lunch
School lunches and malnutrition
Social and educational values of the hot lunch
Starting the lunch project
 Cooking outfit
 Storing supplies and utensils
 Getting food supplies
Overcoming difficulties
Serving the lunch
What to cook
The school lunch as an opportunity for effective teaching
Summary

Advantages of the Hot Lunch. — Another source of waste during the noon intermission is found in the loss of energy due to malnutrition. Rarely is as good work done in the afternoon session of a rural school as in the morning. This is due largely to the hasty eating of a cold and unappetizing lunch. In order that the lunches of the pupils and teacher may be more appetizing and nourishing many rural educators are advising the preparation of one hot dish during cold weather. This plan has many advantages. The school can do better work after a hot meal than when a cold lunch is the only food. Greater variety can be given to the meals by the addition of one kind of hot food. School lunches are likely to be monotonous and unappetizing, because only a few kinds of food can be easily prepared to fill lunch

boxes. The practice of serving a hot dish also encourages conversation and will cause many pupils to eat more slowly and thus help digestion.

In addition to these aids to health, the preparation of the one hot dish each day gives opportunity for teaching simple cooking, and the pupils can more easily learn about food values, food conservation, and the balanced ration. Moreover, the assembling and eating together, which is made natural and necessary by the serving of the hot food, gives opportunity for the practice of proper table manners and for growth in social ease and grace.

Even when cold lunches are well planned, made as varied as possible and eaten slowly and completely, they are still less nourishing in extremely cold weather than hot food. We give hot food to cows and chickens in severe weather, and it has been proved that school children do better work in the afternoon session when they have had a hot lunch. It is desirable, therefore, from the standpoint of schoolroom efficiency, to cook one hot dish for each noon meal in cold weather.

School Lunches and Malnutrition.—The ordinary school lunch is hastily and thoughtlessly packed. Often the food it contains is selected by the children themselves. In many sections of the Appalachian Mountain states the two staple articles for the school lunch are sandwiches made from cold soda biscuit filled with a thick slab of fried pork, and blackberry pie. Sometimes the only bread is cold buckwheat cakes. From various articles found in school journals and from the many books on rural schools, one would gather that the average school lunch contains some form of sandwiches, pie, and cake or cookies. Such a meal contains too much starch

and too little tissue building food. It needs a cup of cocoa or a bowl of rich soup to give it the proper balance and make it a complete and satisfactory meal.

But, in addition to the lack of balance in the food value of the cold lunch, it fails further to nourish, because it is eaten too hastily, and much of it is thrown away uneaten. In many rural schools no time is set aside for eating lunches. A half grown boy will snatch a triangle of pie from his pail and rush to the playground to play ball, eating as he runs. He may repeat this performance a time or two, but occasionally, if the game becomes very interesting, he will eat no more until the afternoon recess. Thus, because the desire for play is stronger than the appeal of the cold lunch, not enough food is eaten; and food that is so hastily swallowed, being half chewed, is not properly digested.

Social and Educational Values of the Hot Lunch.—When the hot lunch is introduced, the necessity for using at least one dish will demand the seating of the pupils during the lunch; furthermore, it will be more convenient to serve the hot food if the school is seated in a group. This group formation and the use of dishes turns the lunch into a meal, and gives opportunity for practice in conventional table manners and the service of food. The more leisurely eating and the conversation that naturally accompanies such a meal, would aid digestion, even if the hot food were not more appetizing and the food values better balanced.

In addition to the advantages just named, which are directly designed to prevent the large waste due to mal-nutrition among school children, the cooking, serving and dish washing of the noon lunch is a valuable industrial

project for the older pupils and a training which may be of much use in everyday life. Moreover, the planning of the one hot dish will involve the teaching of food values, proper food combinations, and other topics vitally related to health. The assumption of responsibility for preparing and serving the hot dish gives opportunity for the use of initiative, also, and the whole project calls for group coöperation. The industrial and social training thus secured justifies the introduction of the hot lunch into every rural school. Combining the advantages named and discussed, it may be readily seen that few subjects studied by pupils in our schools furnish such valuable opportunities for practical training.

Starting the Lunch Project. — Granting then that we should have the hot lunch, the next consideration is how to begin. It is possible to start with very little equipment. One teacher began by having each pupil bring a medium sized potato from home. At first these were baked upon the circular shelf that topped the Burnside stove by which the room was heated. The potatoes were put to bake at the morning recess, and turned or moved about at the periods between classes. In a short time the school gave an entertainment and, with the proceeds, bought an oil stove and some simple utensils and supplies. The baked potatoes had shown them the value of the hot lunch.

Another teacher started hot lunches by cooking upon the box stove provided for heating the schoolroom. She visited the parents and laid her plans before them, asking for their coöperation. In a short time she succeeded in borrowing from neighboring homes two large kettles, a double boiler, two paring knives, four pans and six

spoons. She brought dish pans and dish towels from her boarding place, and the children provided their own plates, bowls and cups. Most of the food supplies were donated by the parents, but each pupil was asked to contribute ten cents for the purchase of miscellaneous supplies, including cocoa, sugar, rice and macaroni. The cooking of the meal required little time, as vegetables were all prepared before school hours or at the morning recess. A committee of three pupils was appointed each week. These pupils set the table, prepared the vegetables, assisted with the cooking and washed the dishes. The teacher did the serving and supervised the other tasks. The novelty appealed to the children and they were enthusiastic about the teacher who showed them how to cook.

Cooking Outfit. — If a schoolhouse is heated by a furnace or by some kind of heater upon which even the simplest cooking cannot be done, a Sterno outfit may be purchased for a dollar or less which will serve to arouse interest and pave the way for securing a more adequate means of meeting the situation. This "canned heat" is a sort of solidified wood alcohol and is convenient and inexpensive.

An equipment that is entirely adequate for the preparation of one hot dish each cold day of the school term can be purchased for less than ten dollars. A two-burner kerosene stove costs about six dollars.¹ This is, of course, the largest item, as the cooking utensils need be neither many nor costly. Moreover, the stove and equipment purchased to make the school children's

¹ Under no condition should *gasolene* stoves be used in rural schools, in the judgment of the writer, because of the great danger of explosion.

lunches more appetizing and healthful can be used at community meetings and other social gatherings held at the schoolhouse.

Storing Supplies and Utensils. — For storing the utensils, supplies and dishes, a cupboard is needed. This can be made from a drygoods box, by inserting shelves and hanging a curtain over the front. Doors would be better than curtains, however, and some of the larger boys can often construct a better cupboard. Such foods as rice, corn, and flour should be kept in glass jars or tin cans, so that they will not offer an invitation to mice and insects.

In addition to a plate, cup, knife, fork and spoon, each pupil should bring two napkins — one to be used as a tablecloth upon the desk. These can be exchanged for clean ones at home at least once a week. Some schools, however, use paper napkins, buying them from a general fund, either donated by the pupils or earned by entertainments.

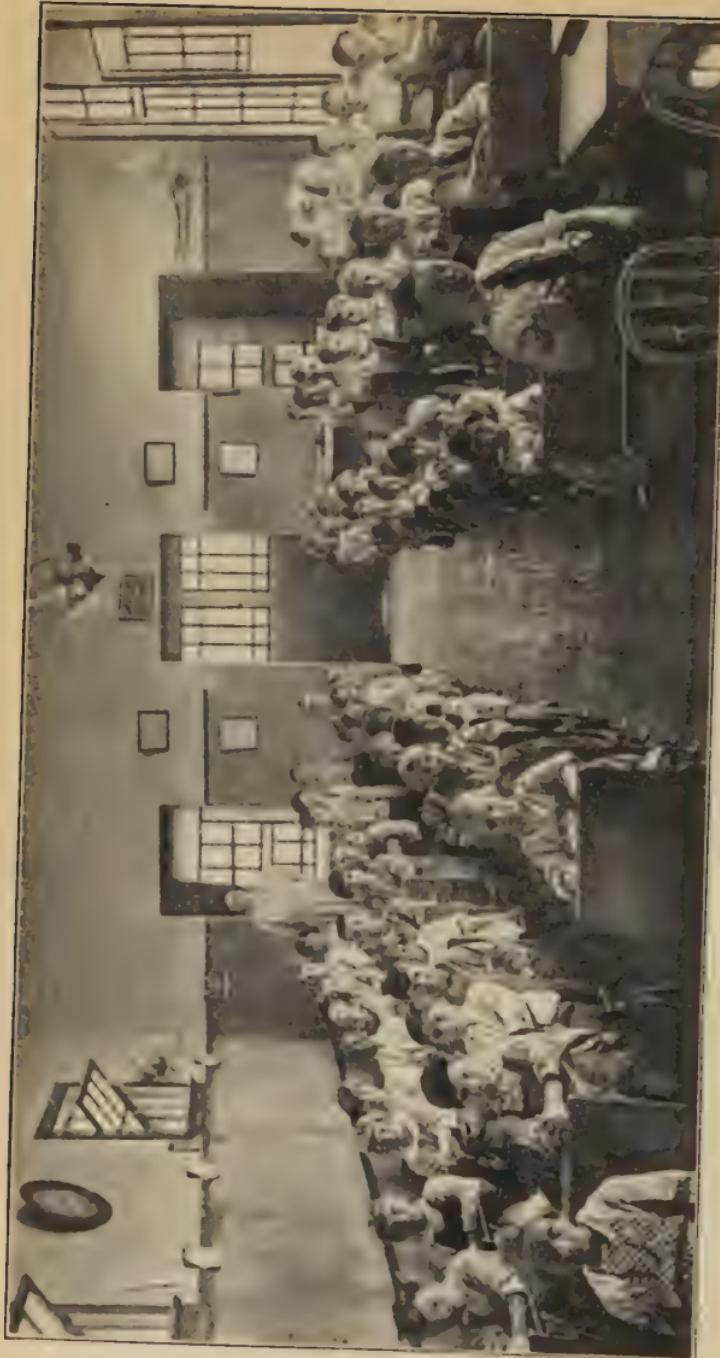
Getting Food Supplies. — There will be no difficulty in getting most of the food supplies from the homes of the pupils if the teacher is tactful, has visited the homes at the beginning of the school term, and has won the friendship and coöperation of the mothers. There may be homes in the community from which only uncooked vegetables should be brought. Milk and butter can be furnished only by homes whose sanitation is unquestioned. In deciding what supplies are needed, these matters can be arranged by a teacher who is considerate and thoughtful, without offense to anyone.

Plans should be made, and the dish to be prepared should be selected two or three days before it is served.

Let the pupils make the suggestions as far as possible. Two or three possible dishes may be suggested to the committee by the teacher, and one of the number chosen by them. Sometimes it is well to plan the menus for a week ahead. Enough change should be made so that no dish becomes monotonous and distasteful.

Overcoming Difficulties. — Some men teachers hesitate to undertake the hot lunch project, because they are unable to do the actual cooking. In such a case there is nearly always some girl in an advanced class who can assume responsibility for the work, especially if her mother is willing to advise her. Since the hot lunch is valuable, it should be undertaken and may be successfully carried out by a progressive man teacher, even though he has a limited knowledge of cookery. In fact, there are men teachers in many rural localities who have been notably successful in arousing an interest in both cooking and sewing. Knowledge of common cookery will be of great aid to the teacher of a rural school who wishes to introduce the hot lunch, but this knowledge is not absolutely essential.

Other teachers hesitate to undertake the serving of one hot dish at lunch time, because they fear that this work may interfere with the ordinary activities of the pupils. It must be remembered, however, that the whole meal is not prepared at school, for the children still bring their lunches from home. Only one dish is prepared each day, and this is done by a committee of three older pupils, the committee serving for only one week at a time. These pupils are held responsible, but the teacher assists, supervises, advises, and encourages them. The necessary preparations are made in the



ALL READY FOR THE HOT NOON-DAY LUNCH

The largest rural school in McLean County, Illinois, where one hot dish is served daily for about five months at a cost of ten cents per pupil per month. In November forty-three children were under weight. In February of the same year only seven were below normal.

morning before school begins, or at the morning recess. One of the committee can quietly get up and light the fire at the proper time. Soon the other pupils will pay no more attention to this than to any other schoolroom activity. Little time, if any, need be taken to watch the cooking process. At least it will require only the partial attention of one pupil.

Serving the Lunch. — Serving the hot dish is the most interesting part of the work, because the pupils enjoy it so thoroughly. As soon as school is dismissed for noon, the pupils take their seats for lunch. The monitors then pass the napkins, spoons or forks, and also the lunch boxes from home, if the pupils have not already secured these before taking their seats. The hot dish made in school is then served to each to be eaten with the lunch brought from home. The teacher takes her seat near the pupils, with her own lunch box, and is served with the others.

The teacher should assume the duties of hostess at first and encourage fitting conversation. Later this responsibility can be transferred to capable pupils. Approved table manners should be upheld. Usually the children of the more backward homes will learn to eat properly by imitating the manners of the teacher and older pupils. Where occasion arises for instruction in table manners, it should be of such general nature that the pupils will not easily detect the pupil reproved. Sometimes it may prove best to have a private talk with the pupil whose manners are improper. The social value of instruction in accepted manners of eating and serving makes this part of the hot lunch well worth all the work of carrying out the project.

What to Cook. — Three suggestions on what to cook have already been made: Cocoa, baked potatoes and soup. To these may be added nearly any kind of cooked vegetable or dish compounded of a vegetable or cereal, combined with either meat or cheese. A recent book on Rural Education, by A. E. Pickard (Webb Publishing Company, St. Paul) gives directions for the cooking of fifty different dishes that have been prepared and served in rural schools. Any good cook book or the various bulletins sent out by the Department of Agriculture may be used as guides, however. A postal card directed to the Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C., will bring any teacher a classified list of the bulletins published on foods and cookery, and those numbers may then be selected which seem best adapted to local needs. The bulletins are sent free to anyone who asks for them.

The School Lunch as an Opportunity for Effective Teaching. — One of the most needed reforms in rural communities is the improvement of general health standards through instruction in sanitation. We learn to do by doing, and there is no more effective way of teaching proper nutrition, the advantages of a balanced ration, and the evil and waste of duplicating food values, than by the preparation of the hot lunch. Only when our practice supports our theory can we really begin to learn sanitation. It is folly to teach pupils what the textbook in hygiene says on proper ventilation while they are in a room in which the air is unfit to breathe. It is just as absurd to teach the evils of malnutrition from the textbook and then permit the hasty devouring of an unappetizing, poorly-planned lunch. For the

best results of each day's work in the schoolroom we need to have each pupil at the highest point of physical efficiency; and for the future welfare of each pupil we need to teach those lessons that make the deepest impressions concerning the facts which are of the most vital importance. Both present and future needs are combined in the lessons taught by the hot lunch. For these reasons, progressive rural teachers everywhere are trying to make the noon meal palatable, nutritious, and instructive, and the best plan yet devised toward this end has been the preparation of one hot dish each day.

Summary. — This chapter maintains that the school lunch should be supervised, and that it should be supplemented by one hot dish prepared by the pupils at school. The preparation and serving of this food gives opportunity for the efficient teaching of practical hygiene dealing with food values and balanced ration. It promotes the health of pupils and teachers by removing one cause of malnutrition. It affords a chance for the teaching and practice of conventional table manners. It also discourages the hasty gobbling of an insufficient amount of food, and promotes an intimate feeling of good fellowship between the teacher and the school. Furthermore, it may be the basis of effective work in the teaching of household economics.

EXERCISES

1. Summarize briefly the advantages of serving one hot dish with the rural school lunch.
2. State the exact steps you would take in starting to have a hot lunch served in your school.
3. Bring to class a written list of the equipment you regard as necessary for the preparation of one hot dish, and tell exactly how it may be procured.

4. Show how the hot lunch serves as a check against waste in the rural school.
5. Point out the relationship existing between malnutrition and misconduct.
6. Have your pupils make a cook book for the school library containing recipes of dishes successfully cooked at school to supplement the lunches.
7. Give three possible ways by which a hot lunch outfit may be secured.
8. Decide upon the number of committees that could be used efficiently in carrying out a hot lunch project, and briefly outline the duties of each committee.
9. Plan a series of lessons on food values and balanced ration to be presented largely through the medium of the hot lunch.
10. State and refute three objections that might be made to the hot lunch project.

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CHAPTER XVI

REGULAR ATTENDANCE

Rural illiteracy and short school terms

Regular attendance and length of term

Monetary loss due to irregular attendance

Appalling waste

Factors in school attendance

What the teacher can do

Interest pupils

Win parents

Offer rewards

Conduct contests

Notice every absence

Check tardiness

State and county responsibility for better attendance

Children's Aid Society in Baltimore County, Maryland

The Delaware attendance campaign

Summary

Rural Illiteracy and Short School Terms. — While the management of the entire school day of six hours has now been considered, the ground has not yet been entirely covered. Because the school is a part of the community, the work of school management must extend beyond the hours of the school day, and beyond the limits of the school premises. One of the most pressing of these outside responsibilities is that of the teacher for securing the largest and most regular attendance possible.

Beyond doubt, the greatest waste in rural education is due to short terms and poor attendance. The average annual term of country schools in the United States is

only 137.7 days, or about seven months out of the twelve. City schools are in session at least two months longer, on the average. There would be great waste of educational time even if every country child of school age attended the full seven months, but the typical rural school probably has only two-thirds of the pupils enrolled present each day. The average daily attendance for rural schools is only 67.6 per cent, while city schools have an average of 79.3 per cent. These per cents are based upon the pupils enrolled, and cities usually have a truant officer who sees that most of the children of school age are enrolled in the schools. There are many children in the rural districts, however, who have never been enrolled. This, of course, would reduce the percentage of attendance, and the omission of towns under 2500 in population would bring the per cent still lower. It is because of this low percentage of school attendance that the percentage of people who cannot read or write is twice as high in the country districts of our nation as it is in the cities. Moreover, illiteracy is three times as great among native American children as it is among the children of foreign born parents.

Whenever an increase in the length of the school term is suggested, the need of more money for rural districts is made evident. The rural schools must have more money if the country boys and girls, who constitute almost half our school enrollment, are to have justice from state and nation. At present the average annual expenditure for the education of each city school child in the nation is forty dollars. For the education of each country child the same figure is twenty-four dollars.

The difference in expenditure for building and equipment is even greater. It is to be regretted that Congress has not yet passed the Towner-Sterling bill or some similar measure providing for the equalization of educational opportunity through national aid. The nation has been aroused, however, over the appalling conditions revealed by the draft examinations, and financial aid to the weak and struggling rural school will surely come soon.

Regular Attendance and Length of Term. — In the meantime, it is possible to increase the actual length of the school term by improving the average daily attendance. State Superintendent Harris, of Louisiana, states that a rural school term of six months, with an average attendance of 100 per cent, is a *longer*, better, and cheaper school term than a nine months' term with only 66½ per cent of daily attendance, and Dr. P. P. Claxton, former Commissioner of Education, endorses this statement.

While 100 per cent attendance is an ideal impossible to attain, 66½ per cent is undoubtedly higher than the actual per cent of daily attendance for the children enrolled in rural schools, and many are not enrolled. If those who might reasonably be expected to be enrolled were counted, the Bureau of Education estimates that the average rural attendance would be less than 60 per cent, and many whole states fall below this average.

Mr. J. L. McBrien, a former specialist in rural education for the Bureau of Education, says:

If the rural school attendance were raised from 67.6 per cent — the average daily attendance in the rural public school of the United States — to 90.6 per cent, the average daily attendance in the rural

public schools of Oregon, it would mean an increase of the rural school term for the country at large of 23 per cent. It would seem that 9.4 per cent of the actual enrollment, as in the case of Oregon, is a sufficient allowance for all reasonable absences, — such as sickness, necessity of pupils being absent as wage-earners in order to properly support the family, and all other reasonable excuses. Oregon has found it so. What Oregon has done every other state in the Union can do if it only will. Who is ready to say that every state should not do this for the farm boy and the farm girl?

Monetary Loss Due to Irregular Attendance. — The average farmer is interested in any proposition which affects his pocketbook, and this matter of poor attendance in the rural schools is a loss to the taxpayers of the community, as well as to the children of school age. It is unjust for the state to tax A to pay for teaching B's children, and then permit B to keep his children out of school through ignorance, indifference, or selfishness. Every teacher should try to convince the voters of his community that they — the taxpayers — are being robbed through poor school attendance, so that the proper type of compulsory school laws will be made and enforced.

But the waste of the farmer's money is not to be compared to the monetary loss of America's future taxpayers — the children themselves. Experts tell us that every day a child attends school in the grades is worth nine dollars to him. Let the teacher then estimate the loss to the children of one of our states as revealed in the following statement from a recent annual report of the state superintendent of schools: "The figures show that 169,630 children of school age in this state did not attend school a day last year. Many of these have never been enrolled during any previous year.

Without the strong arm of the law they will grow up in ignorance just as thousands before them have done."

Appalling Waste. — By reading these statistics and quotations, one must surely be convinced that poor attendance in the rural schools of our nation causes an appalling waste. Not only is there a great waste of the small amount of money which is expended, but there is an even greater waste of time and opportunity incurred by the pupils who are out of school — a waste of future earning power on the part of the coming citizens who will be hampered by illiteracy. Every conscientious teacher must make the greatest possible effort to check this enormous waste by securing and maintaining the largest possible average daily attendance in the school for which she is responsible.

Factors in School Attendance. — Dr. George H. Reavis, formerly assistant State Superintendent of Maryland, recently made an accurate and scientific study of the causes of irregular attendance in the rural schools of five widely differing counties of that state. The results of this investigation have been published as a doctor's dissertation by Teachers College, Columbia University, New York. He makes the following summary of his findings:

The greatest factor in the school attendance of the country child in these five counties is the distance he lives from school. Next in order is the relation of his grade to his age; and about equal to the age-grade relation is the quality of his school work. Next in order come the teacher and the community, which are similar in importance, differences between teachers being a little more significant than differences between communities.

In emphasizing the importance of regular attendance Dr. Reavis says:

A pupil's standing in the class with which he recites has a definite and fixed relation to the number of days he is present. The quality of work he does determines his chance of promotion. His promotion determines the grade he will reach by a given age. The grade he reaches by a certain age again has a marked effect upon his attendance. By affecting a pupil's class standing, attendance in any year also affects his future attendance. The pupil who is irregular in attendance drops in the quality of his work and attends fewer days the following year as a result of being behind; while the regular pupil who keeps up to standard accumulates a momentum that helps to carry him on. The child who is successful in his work gets promoted, keeps up with his grade, and being in the proper grade for his age, attends more days, which helps his quality of work and tends to keep him up to grade. Thus school attendance is cumulative in its effect.

The relation of attendance to progress in school, and the cumulative aspect of attendance, emphasize the importance of regular attendance in the rural schools. Much of our present investment in rural schools is rendered ineffective by the failure of pupils to attend.

In speaking of the teacher as a factor in rural school attendance Dr. Reavis concludes:

There is something about the teacher which does have a fixed relation to school attendance. It enters into the rating she is given by the county superintendent, and again as one of the factors determining her salary. It may be that intangible thing we call personality, a function of her attitude toward the children, and composed of those personal qualities which enable her to arouse the interest of her pupils in their work. Since some teachers have better attendance than others, and there is good evidence that the difference is due to personal qualities, there is added responsibility on the teacher for taking a personal interest in her pupils. Each day she adds to a child's attendance is as much service to the cause of education as a corresponding improvement in the quality of her teaching. Teachers should be led to feel this responsibility.

What the Teacher Can Do. — *Interest Pupils.* — Every rural teacher should make at least one visit to each home in the community before the first month of school is over. Many writers on rural education insist upon having this round of visits, or social survey, made before the opening of the school term. Whether this is possible or not, the teacher can surely visit the homes soon after school begins. In making these visits, two aims should be kept in mind. A real teacher wants to awaken in every child of school age a desire to attend school. Many American parents permit their children to do as they please about going to school. This is especially true of younger children. In such cases, the teacher should strive to win the regard of these children, so that she can interest them and make them want to attend school.

Win Parents. — But there are other cases in which the parent must be won. Sometimes the opposition to school is due to the ignorance of parents. A young conscript soldier, a fine specimen of Anglo-Saxon stock, came from one of the southern states. When questioned as to his illiteracy, he said: "My pappy and mammy didn't 'low we should get no schoolin'. They all didn't favor chillen settin' up over ole folks." Many parents who are not opposed to schools are indifferent and keep their children at home to work. Much of this absence is unnecessary. Most parents, however, can be induced to send their children to school regularly, if the teacher can convince them that the children will be more profitably employed there than they are at home.

In order to convince ignorant or careless parents that there is a great waste of money involved in permitting

their children to stay at home from school, the teacher must have proof of her statements. An excellent bulletin on *The Money Value of Education*, issued by the Bureau of Education as Bulletin No. 22 of the 1917 series, may be purchased for fifteen cents from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. To strengthen this discussion two arguments may well be quoted from this bulletin:

Every day spent in school pays the child \$9.02. Here is the proof. Uneducated laborers earn on the average \$500 a year for 40 years, a total of \$20,000. High School graduates earn on the average \$1000 a year for 40 years, a total of \$40,000. This education required 12 years of school of 180 days each, a total of 2,160 days in school. If 2,160 days in school add \$20,000 to the income for life, then each day at school adds \$9.02. The child that stays out of school to earn less than \$9.00 a day is losing money, not making money.

Education increases productive powers. In 1899 Massachusetts gave her citizens 7 years' schooling, the United States gave her citizens 4.4 years' schooling, and Tennessee gave her citizens only 3 years' schooling. The average daily production of the citizen of Massachusetts was then 85 cents, that of the citizen of the United States 55 cents, while that of the citizen of Tennessee was only 38 cents. The proportion has been unchanged in recent years, although both the average schooling and the average production have been increased.

After the highest possible enrollment has been secured, the attendance must be kept up by every means possible. The best method is by making the school more interesting than any other place. This can be done by fitting both the course of study and the methods of teaching to the needs and interests of the pupils. Industrial work and supervised play are two strong factors in securing this interest. A good library helps also.

Offer Rewards. — Until the proper school spirit has been aroused among pupils and patrons, no reasonable

device for increasing the average attendance should be left untried. Rewards of various kinds often stimulate interest. Pupils may be given picture cards for perfect attendance; honor rolls containing the names of pupils who have attended every day may be posted in the schoolroom at the end of each month, and printed in the county papers; and in some states pupils can be induced to strive for perfect attendance certificates furnished by the state. Such rewards are justified by the great need of checking this waste.

Conduct Contests. — Attendance may frequently be improved by contests of various sorts. If the teacher can get her pupils to run an attendance race with some neighboring school, or arouse a spirit of emulation between the upper and lower grades of her own school, or between the girls and boys, the average daily attendance will be greatly increased. Each pupil's attendance record may be posted, and pupils may be inspired to improve their own records, thus contesting present achievement against past realization.

At social center meetings, literary societies, and other gatherings where parents are convened papers may be read on the subject of school attendance and bulletins distributed for future reading. Often an appeal to local or state pride proves effective when a wider patriotic appeal would not be heeded.

Notice Every Absence. — The average daily attendance may be improved also by the teacher's kindly notice of every absence. Inquiry should always be made of the other children when a pupil is absent. If the absence is prolonged for several days, the teacher should make a brief visit of inquiry, if possible. In case of contagious

disease, a friendly little note may take the place of the visit. Each pupil should realize that he is missed by his teacher and his class, and urged to return to school as soon as he is able. A note or a visit will usually convince both the child and his parents of the teacher's interest, and will lessen the number of pupils who drop out of school, thus increasing the average daily attendance.

Check Tardiness. — Many country schools are seriously troubled with tardiness. Very interesting opening exercises, started promptly at nine, will do much to check this waste of time. These exercises must be varied, so that they will have the charm of novelty. A very interesting story may be read by the teacher as a continued serial, pictures may be shown and explained, nature study specimens studied — in fact, whatever seems most interesting to the pupils may be placed upon the program at this time. Athletic contests or especially interesting games may precede the opening of school. Honor rolls and other artificial attendance devices may be enlarged also to include promptitude.

Occasionally a pupil may need to be punished for tardiness, but the teacher should be very careful to discover the real cause before taking action. Visits to the home help to check tardiness, also. In some cases tardiness cannot be avoided, and it is always preferable to absence. If the teacher remembers that the school exists for the good of the children, she will surely use every possible means of inducing all the children to practice regular and prompt attendance.

State and County Responsibility for Better Attendance. — The teacher alone, however, cannot be expected

to solve this difficult problem of school attendance. Behind her at every turn must rest the loyal support and aggressive action of both state and county officials. So essential is this assistance, in fact, that no adequate solution of the problem of attendance can be realized without the concerted action of both state and county superintendents and the successful development of state and county attendance campaigns. One of the first counties in the United States to appreciate this truth was Baltimore County, Maryland, which for several years under able leadership has attained remarkable results in this direction.

Children's Aid Societies in Baltimore County, Maryland. — In 1912 it was found that the compulsory school law could not be adequately enforced in Baltimore County because of the many children who could not be required to attend school on account of disability or poverty. The school authorities immediately directed their efforts toward the development of different agencies so that the number of cases of distress, neglect or delinquency might be reduced. The Children's Aid Society, with its juvenile division, the Junior Children's Aid Society, was therefore organized to assist the attendance department of the county schools by financing much of this necessary preventive work. The Junior Society has about 9000 members who help by contributions of clothing and food. A "Mobile Dental Car" with its graduate dentist who cares for the teeth of rural school children is also financed by the organization.

The Children's Aid Society has been in existence only a few years but it now employs three trained social workers and two nurses to conduct its activities. This

society is well organized and touches the life of the entire county. Mr. John T. Hershner, assistant superintendent and chief attendance officer, to whom its success is to be largely attributed, writes as follows of the work done:

When the school attendance law of Maryland was passed in 1912, it soon became apparent that many children could not be required to attend school for various reasons. Some of these could have been excused on the plea of physical disability or poverty, but this did not seem the sensible way to handle the difficulty. Our efforts in Baltimore County have therefore been directed toward the development of different agencies so that cases of distress, neglect or delinquency might be handled successfully.

The County agencies for this purpose are the Children's Aid Society of Baltimore County, The Junior Children's Aid Society, the Juvenile Court with its Probation Officer and the School Attendance Department. The Junior Children's Aid Society is a branch of the Senior Society and is composed of school children. It has enrolled about 9000 members. Each society has its own officers and conducts its own meetings. The Christmas contributions of clothing, canned goods and food has far exceeded our fondest expectations. This organization is financing the Mobile Dental Car. A graduate dentist has charge of this work. This plan makes possible the care of teeth for any child in the rural schools of the county. In order to coördinate the social activities of the county, the Social Director of the Children's Aid Society was made assistant attendance officer. She is paid a small salary for her services, but is not required to do attendance work except as it relates to her social duties. The Assistant Superintendent of School has charge of school attendance and is a member of the Board of Managers of the Children's Aid Society.

Too much credit cannot be given to the Children's Aid Society for the fine work it is doing among school children as well as grown-ups. The demands upon the society have grown enormously. While it has been in existence but a few years, three trained social workers with the Social Director and two graduate nurses are employed to carry on this work. This society is well organized with units composed of men and women touching the life of every section of the county.

The Delaware Attendance Campaign. — A good illustration of desirable state activity in school attendance is furnished by Delaware. School attendance in Delaware has increased in the past three years from an average of 90 days to an average of 134, an increase of about fifty per cent. The Delaware School Auxiliary, which administers the large sum given by Pierre S. Dupont to aid public education in this state, has had at its command funds not available everywhere. Some of the salient characteristics of this campaign may, however, be copied at little or no cost.

Many states have attendance officers. In Delaware these officials are called Visiting Teachers, and by co-operating with child welfare associations, the Red Cross, and various other charitable organizations they do much preventive work.

Extensive publicity is part of the Delaware plan for securing good attendance. Not only are "honor rolls," and prize essays on attendance published in local newspapers, but pictures of prize-winning pupils and schools are published in pictorial leaflets sent to all Parent-Teacher Associations, and moving pictures showing groups of pupils being awarded prizes for good attendance are run in various places throughout the state.

While the complicated machinery and large clerical force engaged in keeping accurate and scientific records of inattendance and its causes are not available everywhere, much of this is valuable only as a matter of scientific research. The vital point is that adequate records be kept, that the causes for absence be definitely known, and that preventable absence be reduced.

Two particular features of the Delaware rewards for

good attendance should be noted. These are of two types, rewards to individual pupils, and rewards to the school. In 1920-21 each schoolroom having an attendance of ninety per cent received a small state flag, which remained on the wall throughout each month that this standard of attendance was maintained. Each pupil receiving an average of ninety per cent or more received a card containing a message from some person of note or one telling a story of Delaware history with an appropriate illustration. At the end of the term each school that had kept the desired standard of attendance received a large state flag, and each pupil earning it received a good or perfect certificate of attendance. In 1921-22 the rewards took the form of picture cards describing local birds and flowers for individual pupils and beautiful photogravures for the schoolroom walls. The individual rewards for 1922-23 were buttons appropriately inscribed, while the class rewards were beautifully illustrated books for the school libraries. This variety and value to both child and school is worthy of notice and imitation. It is not the policy of Delaware to ignore the value of a good compulsory school law. Such laws are essential, but until they are firmly established and based upon good school spirit rewards have been considered justifiable.

Summary. — Since the average length of term in the one-room district school is less than seven months, it is a crying shame that the average daily attendance is but 67.6 per cent of the enrollment. Moreover, if all were enrolled who should be, it would probably not exceed sixty per cent. This poor attendance causes not only a great waste of the taxpayer's

money, but results in far greater waste to the children — waste of present opportunity and future earning power. Irregular attendance also mars the success of any school. The whole nation has been aroused over the appalling proportion of illiterates revealed among the young men drafted for the World War. Since the percentage of those who cannot read or write is twice as high in the country as in the city, a great burden of responsibility for securing a large and regular attendance rests upon the rural school teacher.

EXERCISES

1. State clearly the provisions of the compulsory school law in your state. Tell in what particular you think this law needs amendment.
2. Compute the per cent that the pupils enrolled in your district constitute of the number enumerated. Find what per cent of the pupils enumerated in the district attended the entire past term.
3. Describe at least one successful method of improving school attendance not mentioned in this chapter.
4. Name three causes which pupils give for being absent from school, and tell how each should be dealt with.
5. Show how irregular attendance causes friction and waste in the school.
6. Outline a talk on the value of regular school attendance to be given at a local parent-teacher meeting.
7. Make a graph comparing the attendance in your state with that of the average rural school in America, also with that of the state ranking highest in rural school attendance. For the necessary data for these graphs see *Bulletin No. 31*, of the 1920 series from the Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.
8. Find out how much money your state spent for schools last year, and calculate the monetary loss due to non-attendance, basing your percentage upon the total school population.
9. Use the figures issued by your state school authorities and find out how the percentage of attendance for this year compares with that of five years ago, and ten years ago.

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CHAPTER XVII

THE SCHOOL AND THE COMMUNITY

Influence of community on school work

Country teachers should study rural life problems

The relation of community problems to school problems

Responsibility of the teacher for a proper start

How to begin social-center work

 The country-life club

 School fair

 Pageant

 Literary society

 Reading-circle

 Singing-school

Finding time for outside activities

Teachers need vision

Summary

Influence of Community on School Work. — The rural teacher is shortsighted who regards the community only as the place from which her pupils are drawn. Such a conception conforms to the idea of education possessed by the monks in the dark ages. The school should be but one part of community life, touching other institutions in all its varied activities. Lest any young or inexperienced teacher may have failed to consider how vitally the work of the school is affected by the nature of the community, let each consider two rural schools in her own locality, one regarded as a good school and the other classed as poor.

It is a well-known fact that schools are usually rated as desirable or undesirable largely from the type of

community in which they are located. Other matters, as an unusually large enrollment, poor teaching for several preceding years, distance from the boarding place, or a large number of advanced pupils may occasionally need to be considered in deciding whether a certain school is too difficult for a young teacher to undertake. The general progress of the community, however, and the attitude of the community toward the school go far to determine whether the teaching of a school will be a pleasant, profitable labor or a difficult, thankless task.

In the better class of rural communities most of the pupils attend school regularly, textbooks are bought by the parents upon the teacher's request, the adults of the community coöperate with the teacher in making the school successful, pupils are expected to prepare their lessons at home in the evening, and home training supports and supplements the work of the school.

On the other hand, some schools have their progress seriously hampered by neighborhood strife, or by the ignorance and greed of many of the patrons. Children are kept at home upon the slightest pretext, the outspoken criticism of the teacher by thoughtless parents produces antagonism in the minds of the children, school problems are created by lack of proper textbooks, and attempts at holding community meetings end in failure because of the disgraceful conduct of lawless rowdies.

The difficulty of teaching school in such a community is a challenge to the power and skill of the most capable and experienced teacher. But the sad part of the situation is that the most progressive communities usually

offer the highest salaries and so procure the most skillful teachers. Thus the youngest and most poorly prepared amateurs must struggle with the overwhelming difficulties produced by the undesirable social life of the least progressive rural communities.

Country Teachers Should Study Rural Life Problems.

— Since the success of the school is so intertwined with the prosperity and progress of the community in which it is located, the progressive rural teacher must be familiar with the common problems related to rural progress. Moreover, any teacher who has the true interest of the rural school at heart will make some effort and contribution toward the solution of the most pressing problems of the community. This is why high schools and normal colleges require rural sociology in their courses for rural teachers.

But many rural teachers have not had the advantages of such training and must depend upon books. Those named as references at the close of this chapter will be found helpful, and new books on the subject appear frequently. Since the problem of the rural school is one phase of the rural life problem the country teacher who wants to master her own work must study the problems of rural life in general, and make a special study of the rural community of which the school is a part.

The Relation of Community Problems to School Problems. — Let any teacher who may not yet see the vital importance of having the school reach out to aid in community affairs consider some of her most pressing school needs as related to these community problems. One of the greatest disadvantages of the rural teacher in both teaching and school management is irregular

attendance. The excuses most frequently given for absence are sickness, work at home, and bad roads. Each of these — rural health, child labor, and bad roads — is a community problem, yet each affects school attendance. The comfort, convenience, and equipment of the school building, as well as the matter of a living wage and a comfortable home for the teacher, also depend upon rural prosperity and social progress.

The good roads problem touches the question of school management at several points. In addition to being a big factor in regular attendance, good roads are essential to two of the best solutions for giving adequate schooling to farm children. Neither school consolidation nor adequate professional supervision can be successfully worked out until roads are improved. Thus it is clear that the problems of the rural teacher are really community problems, and that the teacher needs the aid and coöperation of the community before these difficulties can be overcome.

Responsibility of the Teacher for a Proper Start. — When the teacher realizes that she needs the help and support of the community, she must try earnestly to obtain it. Every home has other duties toward a child besides that of education. In many homes the struggle to feed and clothe the family is so great that it takes all the energy and thought of the parents. The teacher is responsible for the task of educating the child, and it is, therefore, her business to secure what help she needs in this task from the community. In order to secure this help she must become acquainted with the people of the community. No teacher can really understand her pupils until something is learned of their home and

family life. This makes necessary an early round of school visits.

Some writers upon rural school matters advise a teacher to make a round of visits to the homes of the community previous to the opening of school. If this is impossible, the young teacher should at least make one visit to the community upon the occasion of signing the contract. At that time the schoolhouse should be inspected and any necessary cleaning or repairs be brought to the attention of the local board of trustees. The teacher should plan this visit to the school building before signing the contract, so that any grave need or defect may be remedied or, at least, promised before the contract is signed. For example, some district schools have been known to be used several years before any privies were built. Such a condition is indecent and intolerable. No thinking teacher should sign a contract to teach a school until proper toilets are constructed. In many instances trustees neglect the proper cleaning of the building unless the teacher insists upon having the room scrubbed before school opens.

A new teacher should arrive in the community at least upon the Saturday preceding the opening of school. She should by all means attend Sunday School and church, if possible, as she will thus have an opportunity of meeting both pupils and patrons. If a teacher shows a spirit of friendliness, she will usually receive invitations to visit the homes of the neighborhood. These should be accepted until a complete round has been made. It seems a very moderate requirement to say that a rural teacher should pay at least a brief visit to each

home represented in her school before the close of the first school month.

How to Begin Social Center Work. — However great and numerous the needs for reform in the community may be, probably no one feature will demand improvement more than the school. For this reason and because this is the definite duty assigned to the teacher, the teacher's work toward neighborhood improvement should begin with the school. The schoolhouse and grounds must be made neat, healthful, and attractive. The school program must be interesting, varied, and practical. The pupils must be inspired to the earnest study of real problems, so that their progress can be noticed by all their friends and relatives. When the affection and loyalty of the school has been won, then, and then only, will the teacher be fairly sure of success in other forms of community service.

Farm people, as a class, are independent. They delight in bestowing favors, but do not like to be placed under obligation to anyone, especially a stranger. They deeply resent any attempted patronage. Any teacher who does not recognize this quality in the spirit of those about her is foredoomed to failure in all community projects. The patrons can be made to feel that the school needs them. They can be invited into the social center meetings as guides and advisors. Some definite service that may be rendered to the young folks of the school and community should be assigned to each. The teacher who gladly accepts and acts upon the smallest helpful suggestion from the humblest member of the community is the one who receives the most fruitful suggestions and the most efficient aid from the people



COMMUNITY CENTER MEETING AT A RURAL SCHOOL IN MENARD COUNTY, ILLINOIS

as a whole. Such help may very easily be made the basis for the organization of a *parent-teacher association* or a *school improvement league*.

The country life club or *farmers' club* will grow naturally out of really vital school work in agriculture and rural sociology. In a county in which boys and girls have already been organized for club work, the teacher should certainly take advantage of this experience. Through coöperation with the county agent the teacher may strengthen her own influence while helping the school and community.

A *school fair* or *school exhibit* should be held at least once a year. An agricultural exhibit must naturally be held in the fall, and should show the best results of the school garden or of home projects in agriculture. An exhibit of other interesting school work, as cooking, sewing or manual training, may well be combined with the exhibit of agricultural products. Where more than one school is represented, the crowd is usually larger and the interest is increased.

A *pageant* or *play festival* is a fitting community event for the spring. The first day of May, being the traditional May-day, might well be celebrated in this way. Like the school fair, the play festival gains in interest where several schools are combined for the day's events. A program of singing games, folk dances, athletic contests, and stunts can be prepared with little special thought and preparation, providing there has been playground supervision of an intelligent type throughout the school term. A picnic or basket dinner might well be a feature of such a community meeting.

A *literary society*, to be really useful and educative, should deal largely with topics of local interest. One

general topic for each session will be found interesting. Good roads, country life, health improvement, better farming, and why boys and girls leave the farm, are suitable subjects for evening programs. The poems recited, compositions read, and question debated, should all deal with the general topic selected. As far as possible, the officers of such a society should be patrons of the school. This encourages local leadership, and makes possible the continuance of the meetings after the school term has ended. The meetings should begin promptly, and careful preparation should be made for each program. At least half the numbers of each program should be given by pupils of the school. The preparation for this work can be made a part of the work in English, and should be carefully supervised by the teacher, both as to the selection of material and its preparation. Needless to say, the teacher should always be present, ready to fill any vacancies upon the program that may suddenly occur, ready to help in any way, seeing that things move swiftly and smoothly, yet keeping in the background as much as possible.

A reading circle, literary club, or Chautauqua can be organized when the school library is used by the patrons of the school, as well as by the pupils. It should always be possible to secure from a rural school library the latest farm bulletins, an interesting magazine telling about current events, a good story book, or a book upon some phase of rural life. Pupils should be encouraged to use the library and discuss the books and bulletins they have been reading with their home folks. Money can be raised for buying new books from the neighborhood by means of entertainments and socials. Someone

who knows the school and community and who also knows the best and latest books should be asked to help the teacher in the selection of the volumes for which the money is to be spent. Standard library lists should also be consulted for guidance. (See Appendix, Sections II and III.) Much money is wasted every year by country school teachers in buying books that will never be widely read or that are worthless and trashy. Every rural school should have a library that is worth circulating and the teacher should then see that it circulates all over the neighborhood. When the people get the habit of using the books and bulletins in the school library, they will feel the need of meeting to talk over what they have read. Their thoughts can then be turned in the direction of needed reforms merely by selecting for reading circle use those books in which these reforms are presented and discussed.

Another type of social center work that may be undertaken is the *singing school* or *community chorus*. A good choir and good congregational singing at the rural or village church always indicates musical interest and talent. If the teacher has the essential knowledge and experience to act as the singing school teacher or chorus leader, let her by all means undertake the task. The idea is to have something that will afford a point of contact between the teacher and the people, and to get everybody interested in doing something. Music is a form of expression that is of great interest in many communities, an interest strong enough to unite widely different people. When musical talent is present in the neighborhood and a local instructor can be secured, this enterprise may well be started by a teacher devoid

of musical talent, but having the executive ability essential for the starting and upbuilding of a community chorus.

Since the welfare of the school is dependent upon the prosperity and social progress of the community, the school should strive to become a factor in this social progress. This is one reason why a wider use of the rural school is to be desired. Any teacher who can bring the people of the neighborhood together and induce them to coöperate for any good purpose is doing a service to the community. The best form of community gatherings or social center meetings is that which meets the needs and tastes of the immediate community. Each teacher should size up the local situation and, after having mastered the most pressing difficulties of her own task, start whatever form of neighborhood meetings she considers most helpful or interesting. No school can be well managed which contributes nothing to community welfare.

Finding Time for Outside Activities. — Sometimes teachers say that they have no time for anything but the preparation of the next day's lessons. Three objections to this line of conduct appear at once: First, the teacher needs to know the *pupils* just as much as the *lessons*, and really to know the pupils one must know their homes and families and their interests in out-of-school life. In the second place, there can be no intelligent adaptation of the course of study to social and community needs unless the rural teacher through direct contact with people of the neighborhood learns these needs and interests. The third fact to be considered is that the saying, "All work and no play makes Jack a

dull boy," does not lose its force when Jack becomes an adult. Any grown person who ties himself to a daily routine without outside interests or relaxation, becomes one-sided, dull and uninteresting. So, for the sake of one's own growth and welfare, an interest in the neighborhood should be cultivated and some form of social center work should be attempted.

Moreover, by using better and more economical methods in planning and preparation of lessons, time may be found for the most essential activities. It is worth while to learn how to make the best use of time. The difference between the ordinary teacher and the best and most progressive teacher is largely found in their use of time from four in the evening until eight the next morning.

Very frequently this outside work, for which a teacher is not paid, may reach far greater proportions and have far wider influence than any phase of the regular school work. It was the testing of seed corn when teaching a rural school in Iowa that began the public career of Miss Jessie Field, author of *The Corn Lady* and the recent Rural Secretary of the National Y. W. C. A. Another noted example of this same type of professional progress is found in the story of Mrs. Cora Wilson Stewart of Kentucky. A few years ago, when Mrs. Stewart was elected County Superintendent of Rowan County, Kentucky, she was not content with doing the usual routine duties. Observing that a large number of the grown people in her county could not read or write, she saw an opportunity for service. She interested her teachers in the teaching of the grown folks, and night schools, meeting one evening or more each

week, were started. Hundreds of adults thus learned to write their first letter and read their first Bible verses. The reports of this work soon spread far and wide, and, wherever the work of "moonlight schools" is discussed, the work of Mrs. Stewart is known and admired. She had no more time than any other county superintendent, but she had a vision of local needs and a desire to serve the people with whom she worked.

Teachers Need Vision. — It is this vision of needs and possibilities, this sincere desire to serve, that the rural teacher should bring to the community. It is not to be expected that every teacher who does good work in establishing some form of community interest will thus win national fame. Nor is it probable that every teacher who earnestly tries to establish some form of club will succeed in making the movement a permanent one. But the teacher who feels a responsibility to the community and tries to live up to that responsibility will make the school she teaches a more desirable one, and will add to her own power and professional standing. Such a teacher will leave a better school spirit when she goes, and will be much more likely to remain in the same school for a period of years, held by the fascination of doing vital work and sustained by community regard and coöperation.

Summary. — Because rural school problems bear a direct relation to the problems of rural life, country teachers need to study the essentials of rural progress and prosperity. Since the teacher is chiefly responsible for the school, and the growth of the school is dependent upon community upbuilding, every rural teacher should undertake some form of community work. Various types

of social center work, beginning with the school and its needs, have been suggested. Above all, teachers must have vision for this work and an understanding of possibilities.

EXERCISES

1. Tell of some school where better school conditions were secured by means of the teacher's visits to the homes of the community.
2. Relate a story of successful social center work carried on in connection with a rural school.
3. Think of some teacher you know whose success has been unusual, then see if any of this progress can be attributed to work outside the schoolroom.
4. Why should social center meetings be placed upon Friday or Saturday evenings?
5. Debate the following question: "*Resolved*: That it is to the teacher's advantage to mingle in all the uplifting activities of the community."
6. Give three sources in your state from which information and speakers can be secured for organizing the community around the school.
7. Prepare a list of six topics which would be good titles for the programs of parent-teacher meetings.
8. Name three ways by which such an organization might earn money, and three different useful ways of spending the money thus earned.
9. How would you decorate your school for a November meeting? For a February meeting?
10. Name three vital needs of your school which cannot be met by your efforts alone.

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CHAPTER XVIII

USING RURAL RESOURCES

- Neglect of rural materials
- The neighborhood as a source of problems
- Trips and excursions
- Native seat work materials
- Uses for native plants and flowers
- Social resources of the community
- Summary

Neglect of Rural Materials. — The average rural school neglects the valuable materials characteristic of the rural environment. In many rural schools the work of the day differs but slightly from that of the average city school. This tendency of country teachers to imitate city methods is a chief reason for the large waste of educative rural material. The teacher who wishes to check unnecessary waste in the rural school must use the resources afforded by the country community.

The chief purpose of any school should be to furnish food for thought and training in thinking. Since thinking must begin with a problem, realized by the thinker, and since problems are more vital and more easily recognized when closely connected with everyday life, it follows that the rural environment is the best source of problems for the rural school.

The Neighborhood as a Source of Problems. — Every rural neighborhood presents countless interesting problems. The solving of local problems in arithmetic,

agriculture, sanitation, geography, and elementary science not only gives training in genuine thinking, but often affords opportunity for applying the results of the thinking process. In Hodge's *Nature Study and Life* the story is told of a district school whose pupils vigorously attacked the problems of destroying the mosquitoes in the neighborhood. They put coal oil on all the pools and ponds, drained a swamp, and finally in the whole district no more mosquitoes could be found. The fact that malaria disappeared from the community gave added value to their labor. This work was undertaken as a nature study problem, a laboratory demonstration of facts in elementary science, yet its results were even more valuable as a project in community sanitation.

This overlapping of values is frequently found when vital problems are vigorously attacked. Estimating the yield of a field of standing corn may be of almost equal value in arithmetic and agriculture, and hence may be difficult to classify. But there is no doubt that such inquiries are more valuable as arithmetic problems than the so-called allegation and other brain puzzling mysteries of former days.

Such a problem as why valleys ordinarily have better soil than hillsides can be suggested readily to a class in home geography, whose life has been spent upon the farm. In learning the facts of soil erosion, these children will naturally ask about means of preventing this waste, and thus, before the problem is worked out to their satisfaction, there must be ventures into its application in the field of elementary agriculture.

A class of thoughtful pupils in New York City were working upon the uses of hills. At the head of most

lists of uses made by these city boys and girls came a purpose unknown to country children. This first use was: "They are excellent places for summer resorts." Many other uses were listed, but two which would have been mentioned first by country children of a mountainous state were neither named nor discussed. These include the protection from wind which hills afford and the aid of their streams for transportation. Help your pupils to find local problems and assist them in working out solutions.

Trips and Excursions. — The finding and solving of neighborhood problems must mean at least occasional trips to various points in the neighborhood. In some communities, teaching has always been done within the walls of the schoolroom and taking the pupils from the school during school hours tends to cause unfavorable comment. In such a situation it is wise for the teacher to begin with brief trips that can be completed during the noon recess. If longer ones are essential, try having the pupils gather on Saturday afternoon or upon some holiday for the first trips. The prejudice of the neighborhood will, no doubt, disappear as the value of this kind of school work is demonstrated.

For most trips or expeditions, a rural teacher will need at least two lesson plans. The great difference in the age and ability of the pupils usually makes it impossible to treat them all as one group. If the older boys and girls are attacking a difficult problem in agriculture, arithmetic or elementary science, the primary grades must have a separate problem in nature study or home geography. This makes the work to be done by the teacher before the trip much more difficult,



A TYPICAL RURAL SCHOOL IN WEST VIRGINIA

Note the beauty of the natural environment, with its wealth of material for nature study.

but the conduct of the expedition is made easier if each pupil is thoroughly interested in a problem that he can understand and solve.

The results that follow such outdoor solving of problems should soon appear. If the children are actually learning new and interesting facts about their own environment through these experiences, their respect for the teacher increases. Freed from the artificial restraints of the schoolroom, pupils become truly acquainted with the teacher, and a spirit of comradeship is developed which makes an ideal foundation for good school spirit. Children become more interested in the work of their parents, patrons become more interested in the school, and thus education in the schoolroom becomes more closely linked with life. Material is gathered for valuable work in language, oral description, written work of various sorts — in short, many fundamental lessons can be based upon such excursions.

Native Seat Work Materials. — Another advantageous result of neighborhood expeditions is that materials can be gathered for seat work for the primary grades. While the educative value of many of the conventional uses of such seat work materials as pegs, sticks, beads, parquetry blocks, etc., may well be questioned, there are still occasional good uses for these materials. When so little money is furnished for supplies as in the ordinary rural school it is well to spend most funds for supplementary readers, reference books and similar material, and to have the children collect dogwood berries, rose hips, buckeyes and other local materials for recreative seat work. Designs can be worked out with seeds, leaves, corn of varied colors,

and other materials found in abundance in most rural neighborhoods. This work in design can teach number and symmetry just as effectively as parquetry blocks.

It is much more educative for little beginners to trace the outline of an autumn leaf and try to imitate its coloring, than to make marks through a more or less complicated leatherette stencil. If the names and characteristics of the various trees from which the leaves have been gathered can be learned while the child occupies himself in this tracing and coloring, the occupation will have real educative value. The increased interest in observing and comparing shades of color, the power gained in seeing differences before unnoticed, the tendency to note color changes as the season advances — these may be other real values gained from work with colored pencils and autumn leaves.

In addition to these older and more conventional school uses of native materials, most rural communities contain many products valuable for use in construction work. Nearly every rural school can be kept neater by the use of husk doormats. The materials for making these are at hand, and the construction is simple enough for fairly small pupils. Dolls made of corn husks are a delight to the tiny tots. Birch bark may frequently be used in place of expensive construction papers. Native reeds, swamp grasses, long pine needles, willow withes, and hickory splints are ideal materials for basketry; yet many rural teachers say they cannot use this form of construction work because they have no funds to buy raffia and reed. Some rural communities have sand from which the playground sand pile and the sand table for the schoolroom can be supplied. In other places a

native clay is found which is as good for modeling as the expensive compounds sold by school supply companies. Study the resources of your locality, and use the seat work and construction materials found in the neighborhood just as far as possible.

Uses for Native Plants and Flowers. — Many rural schools are bare and unsightly buildings, surrounded by weedy or muddy grounds. Yet much can be done to beautify the building and grounds by using only native resources. Arbor day, which is supposed to be observed annually in most states, need not be the only day in the school year in which planting is done. The close observation of the soil and the study of exposures favorable to the growth of vines and shrubs require careful thinking and are therefore educationally valuable.

Schools should be adorned inside by the use of wild flowers, autumn leaves, and evergreens, each in their proper season. In September, goldenrod, asters, or white and yellow daisies, may furnish the touch of beauty needed. In October, autumn leaves and vines with gorgeous coloring may be used to decorate the room. For Thanksgiving pyramids of brightly colored fruits and vegetables, with perhaps some shocks of corn and festoons of autumn berries and corn, strung by the children of the primary grades for seat work, may give the room a festive appearance. In December, have a Christmas tree, if possible, as the central feature of your schoolroom. During January, see how many varieties of evergreens can be found to lend their beauty to your room. February should be the patriotic month, since Lincoln's and Washington's birthday both come then, and the room should be appropriately bedecked with

flags and bunting. In most states some early wild flowers appear in March, and the vases in the schoolroom should be filled as soon as they appear. Thus, throughout the school term, by presenting the beauty of the great outdoors to the eyes of the pupils there may be instilled a greater love of the beauty with which they are surrounded, and the schoolroom may be made a more cheerful and inviting place.

The school grounds may also be greatly improved by the use of local materials. Of the two things, a beautiful lawn or a serviceable playground, the latter should always be chosen. There should be enough land around every country school to furnish both, however, though unfortunately both are not always possible at present. Yet even where practically all the ground is needed for playground purposes, there may be some adornment. Wild flowers and ferns may be planted near the house, and native vines may cover the screens about the out-buildings. This little bit of beauty, together with scrupulous neatness and well-kept walks, will greatly improve appearances in even a small yard, while for larger grounds well-trimmed front lawns and a few flower beds may be easily attained in most climates.

Social Resources of the Community.—In addition to using these material resources of the neighborhood, the teacher should avail herself of all the social resources of the community. The help to be gained from the knowledge and experience of school patrons, from the wise use of local papers and from affiliation with uplifting agencies of the community—all these are resources upon which a teacher may draw at will.

Nearly every rural community has some man resid-

ing within reach of the school who has made a marked success in some branch of agriculture. Arouse an interest in this line of work among your older pupils and then invite this man into the school to give a talk and answer their questions. If hot lunches are to be prepared, recipes for favorite dishes may be secured from the mothers of the community. An old resident may remember some incident of local history that will be most interesting to the pupils. A visit and talk from the soldier who has recently returned from France or Italy will arouse more interest in geography and in the history of the World War than many conventional textbook lessons. Make use of the experience of the whole neighborhood in your teaching. In addition to making the work more vital, impressive, and interesting, this will serve to form a closer union between the school and the homes it represents.

The alert country teacher can also make use of local newspapers by asking them to publish the monthly report of the school, honor rolls containing the names of the pupils who have made a perfect record of attendance, and announcements of social center meetings, entertainments, school fairs, and other special gatherings. Most newspapers are glad to print such items without charge, or will consider an occasional news letter from the locality ample compensation. The writing of these news letters is a very practical exercise in English composition for the advanced class of a rural school.

An earnest teacher owes it to her pupils to ally herself with all the uplifting agencies of the community, and in turn should be able to call upon any of them for help when she needs it. The Grange lecturer, the Sunday

School superintendent, the county agricultural agent, the canning club supervisor, the local doctor, and the rural minister, each have something to contribute to the activity and interest of the rural school, and have a right to call upon both teacher and pupil for aid in their work. By affiliating herself with all the agencies which are working for the betterment of rural life, the teacher gains strength and influence in the community.

Summary. — In this chapter the rural teacher has been advised to make use of the locality as a source of problems, and as a source of material for seat work and construction. The finding and solving of local problems and the securing of material at hand for school use necessitates trips and excursions into the neighborhood. Where this sort of work is new, the noon intermissions and Saturdays should be used for the first few times. The decorations of the house and grounds should be from native flowers, vines, ferns, and shrubs as far as possible. The social, as well as the material resources of the community are needed for the highest degree of interest and progress in the rural school and are used by the most successful teachers.

EXERCISES

1. Describe a use of local materials for construction work or decoration that differs from any mentioned in this chapter.
2. Name three vines, found in your locality, that would be ornamental and could be transplanted to the school grounds; three shrubs or flowers that could be of similar use.
3. Have you ever tried to use the nearest local newspaper as a means of interesting your community in the school? Relate your experience in detail.
4. Make two plans for a nature study trip or other excursion to be made by a rural school.

5. State six problems based on nature, rural life, or farm and home activities, whose solution would be interesting and profitable to the pupils of a rural school.
6. List some textbook facts that might well be displaced by community facts, if either must be omitted.
7. Prove or disprove this statement: "The rural school has more than it can do to teach fundamentals without attempting to cover community issues."
8. List three benefits to be derived from intelligently directed bird study in a rural school.

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CHAPTER XIX

THE TEACHER'S HELPERS

Need of help

Agencies designed to aid rural teachers

Books

School journals

Bulletins

Reading circles

Pictures

Teachers' meetings

Correspondence courses

Extension classes

Rural school supervisors

Help from local sources

County agricultural agents and club leaders

Summary

Need of Help. — The rural teacher needs to consider all available resources of help because she often feels the need of assistance. Usually, as father drives away after leaving the young teacher at the farmhouse where board has been secured, a terrible weight of responsibility is felt, and to this is added the burden of loneliness. But in reality the young teacher does not stand alone, for at least one-fourth of the rural schools of America are taught each year by boys and girls who are teaching their first term. Nor is the inexperienced teacher left without help, although there may be no supervisor and no experienced teacher within five miles. Much excellent help is available to the young rural teacher and,

other things being equal, the one who uses most of the help thus offered is the one who succeeds best.

Agencies Designed to Aid Rural Teachers. *Books.* — The first aid at hand is to be found in reading matter. There are many good books on rural schools and rural teaching. These can be sent by parcels post, and the rural free delivery will bring them to the door. Perhaps the teaching of some one class or subject gives the young teacher most of her trouble. In that case, a book on the teaching of that subject, or a more advanced text-book on the subject, studied faithfully, may solve the vexing problem. Ordinarily the county superintendent's office should have a supply of such references available to rural teachers, but when this is not the case pedagogical books may often be borrowed from other teachers, local libraries, and state library commissions. Every country teacher should have a personal library of at least a few professional books, however. (For suggestions see the Appendix, Section V.)

School Journals. — School journals are also of great help. Some of these endeavor especially to help the rural teacher. Every teacher should take at least two teachers' magazines, trying the suggestions and using the materials they contain. These journals should not be destroyed after one reading, but should be taken to the schoolhouse and used there in every way possible. The entire file for the year should then be kept for future use, or a scrapbook should be made containing classified clippings from these magazines.

Bulletins. — In addition to the assistance to be obtained from books and magazines, there are many helpful bulletins for free distribution. Nearly every state

school department publishes some helpful bulletins of remarkable value to any inexperienced teacher. State health departments also issue bulletins that they are glad to send to any teacher who asks for them. Then, many normal schools and colleges publish bulletins that are exceedingly practical and helpful, while those issued by the Bureau of Education, the Department of Agriculture, and the Bureau of Public Health Service in Washington are available to all.

It is more difficult, of course, to obtain just the help wanted from reading material than from talking to the helper. One can neither ask questions of books nor demand explanations. The books may tell many things already known, many facts in which the reader is not interested, and some things that cannot be understood. But, by a persistent study of the right books, journals and bulletins, a teacher will obtain much help. This consultation, moreover, is forming a habit which is invaluable to the teacher—the habit of study.

Reading Circles. — Professional reading is made much more valuable when it can be discussed by a group of teachers. Nearly every state recommends the organization of teachers' reading circles, and two or three teachers can get much more from books when they study the same ones and meet at least once a month to talk over what they have read. A college president, who wrote a valuable little book recently, said in it that the greatest benefit that a college brings to its graduates is the power to get the other person's point of view. In discussing this thought, he added that, if one could not go to college, the two best substitutes for college life were being a member of a large family and belonging to reading

circles. Many a young country teacher longs for a college education, yet never avails herself of this substitute which is right at hand. Reading circles should be formed, by all means, if they contain no more than three members.

Pictures. — Another help easily obtained by the most remote rural teacher is the use of pictures. The geographical helps to be found in the wise use of picture post cards can hardly be estimated. Picture cards can also be cut up to make picture puzzles for the little children. Their blackboard lessons can frequently be built around the attractive colored picture from the back of an ordinary magazine. These can also be cut out to make illustrations for the home-made reading chart. An English lesson or a history lesson can often be enlivened by the use of pictures. Teachers should form the habit of noticing the possibilities in the pictures of the illustrated magazines and of using the small copies of famous pictures found in school journals. Part of the money earned by socials or entertainments might well be spent in buying the half-penny copies of famous pictures. These can be used to enliven English, to illustrate history, and in many other ways. Teachers should learn to make pictures and should have the pupils make them. Children have wonderful imaginations and even the crudest drawing helps to make the teacher's meaning clearer, while the frequent use of pictures makes lessons much more interesting.

Teachers' Meetings. — Country teachers cannot afford to neglect the help to be found in teachers' meetings of various kinds. While the salary of the average rural teacher will not permit much travel, at least twice a

term each teacher should have the opportunity of attending a teachers' association, district institute, or some similar meeting where the teachers of the locality are gathered for the discussion of school problems. Every teacher should not only attend these meetings but take part in the discussions, propounding any vexing question or problem that has arisen. By taking an active part in such meetings a teacher obtains much definite help.

Correspondence Courses. — Much help is also afforded to rural teachers through the opportunity of taking normal school or college work by correspondence. These correspondence courses are especially valuable to the teacher who has not yet learned proper methods of study, because the outlines and criticisms correct faults that might otherwise become habits. The course selected should be one designed to give help where it is most needed; and, like the books selected for independent study, may be a course in general teaching, in special teaching-method in the teacher's weakest branch, or in advanced academic work in the subject which proves most troublesome.

Extension Classes. — Better than a correspondence course for most young teachers is the extension class. If a fair-sized class can meet at a central point and have a teacher from a normal school or college come to them at regular intervals to conduct the class, they will have the most helpful sort of study that can come to rural teachers while in service. Normal schools and colleges are doing more extension work each year. A progressive rural teacher can help the spread of this good work by organizing a class and sending to the nearest state



A HELPING TEACHER OR RURAL SCHOOL SUPERVISOR

New Jersey provides one of the best systems for rural school supervision in the United States. In this state there is a helping teacher for each forty rural teachers.

normal school for an instructor. If bad roads prevent the forming of an extension class, the extension department of the nearest normal school or state university may still be of help to the rural teacher by furnishing information of various kinds. Extension departments are glad to send lists of desirable books for the study of teachers or for the school library. They will furnish speakers for special meetings or send the names of helpful bulletins, with the addresses from which they may be obtained. These extension departments are organized and maintained to serve the teachers who are hindered from attending school, and every teacher should seek their aid.

Rural School Supervisors. — Many states now have rural supervisors or helping teachers who make more or less frequent visits to rural schools, and are employed to give practical aid to the teacher in solving her problems. If the inexperienced teacher desires to profit most from the criticisms and suggestions of the supervisor, she must seek her aid by conference or letter whenever she feels the need of help. Not all the difficulties can possibly be noted in a brief visit, and some young teachers stand in their own light by fearing to reveal their troubles. By an open-minded attitude and loyal coöperation teachers profit largely through the supervisor's contact with their work.

Help from Local Sources. — Another source of help too often neglected is found in the knowledge and experience of pupils and patrons. Suppose a young man, teaching his first school, has read of the advantages of serving one hot dish at each lunch hour. He has a teachers' magazine that tells exactly how to proceed;

but the teacher cannot cook, nor can he teach cooking. If he is disposed to avail himself of the help at hand, he gets some of the girls of his upper grades to help him, and they in turn get any help they need from their mothers. Under these circumstances the hot lunch is no less valuable, the teacher deserves no less credit, but rather more. By calling upon the mothers for help and suggestions, the interest of the mothers in the school is increased and the pupils gain an added respect for the practical knowledge of their mothers. Cooking and sewing will be taught in all rural schools in a future not far distant. So let the progressive teacher become a pioneer and introduce these subjects now.

In the agricultural class, the fathers can be of much help. Nearly every farmer in the community is especially successful in some phase of farm work. One may have an excellent herd of dairy cows, another may raise unusually fine fruit. The textbook lessons might well be supplemented by the personal experiences of successful farmers. By calling upon each one for a talk on the part of the work in which he has shown the most marked success, the school may practically secure teaching by a specialist in each subject. The local doctor or dentist is often willing to take a topic in sanitation, while a lawyer of the community may discuss some topic of interest in the civics class. Thus using the help at hand, the teacher may awaken interest in the school.

Frequently there arises a need for some simple bit of repairing, or the construction of some piece of school furniture. A bookcase may be required to accommodate the new library, or some shelves needed to hold the

equipment for cooking and serving the hot lunch. Often the rural teacher is a girl who has no practical knowledge of woodworking. By utilizing the ability of the larger boys, under the direction of some school patron who is a skilled carpenter, many needed articles may be made at small cost. The wise teacher will endeavor to gain the help and coöperation of all school patrons by enlisting their help in carrying out school projects. Most farmers have some knowledge of simple wood-working, and some man can always be found who will be glad to instruct the boys and give them advice. Sometimes it is impossible to get such a man to give personal supervision to the actual process of construction, but the boys will gain in initiative and independence by working alone. Usually the furniture so made will serve the purpose acceptably, and the pride the boys feel in their achievement will cause defects to be overlooked.

In addition to these special topics there are matters of general interest, in which the knowledge and experience of the neighbors may be helpful. In teaching home geography and local history, the knowledge of the patrons is most helpful; indeed, it is almost always necessary. But a wider use of the geographical knowledge of the community is possible. For example, a rural teacher in one community had a successful social center meeting called "See America First," in which pupils and patrons described various places in the United States which they had visited. This gave added interest to all work in the geography classes.

County Agricultural Agents and Club Leaders. — The county agricultural agent is usually glad to co-

operate with teachers of rural schools, and can be of great help to the teacher who works with him. The organization of local corn clubs, pig clubs, or tomato clubs, offers the best and most practical type of projects for agriculture. The papers which must be written by contestants for prizes in these clubs give excellent opportunities for the practical teaching of composition. In addition to these values there is the educative experience of the trips offered as prizes. In many states the winners of county agricultural club contests have their expenses paid to the state university to attend the farmers' week lectures, while state prizes often take the form of trips to Washington, or other large cities. These excursions are of great value to the children who go, and are an inspiration to other children of the neighborhood.

Summary. — Let every young teacher then who desires success avail herself of all the help that can be obtained from books, magazines, bulletins, pictures, reading circles, teachers' meetings, correspondence courses, extension departments of normal schools and colleges, rural school supervisors, and the knowledge and experience of those about her. The work in which the rural teacher is engaged is one of vast importance, vital to the whole nation. In that work she has a right to demand help, and, by using the aids intended for her use, much greater probability of success and growth is assured.

All the helps hitherto mentioned can be used by the isolated rural teacher while teaching even her first term. If these have been well used, the inexperienced teacher will surely see the need of more help, and will attend the spring or summer term of some good normal school,

visit the schools of successful teachers, and observe expert teaching in some training school. One advantage of rural teaching is that the short term permits the teacher to attend school, and this opportunity can be used to good advantage by the ambitious country teacher who has realized her need for the help designed to fit her for more effective service.

EXERCISES

1. Give an account of definite, practical help received by some rural teacher from a source not mentioned in this chapter.
2. Tell the story of some helpful experience connected with a teachers' meeting.
3. Write a short paper naming at least three kinds of reading which should be done by every rural teacher, and give some books you have read of each kind.
4. Tell some of the reasons why reading circles and extension classes are more helpful than independent study.
5. Show how appealing to patrons for help is an aid to community coöperation.
6. State three types of help which you would expect to receive from a rural school supervisor.
7. List the benefits to be derived from the observation of good classroom teaching.
8. Describe three different uses you have found for old school journals; also three uses for old popular magazines.
9. Would you advise an annual school exhibit in connection with some teachers' meeting? Give reasons for your answer.

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CHAPTER XX

OPPORTUNITIES OF THE RURAL TEACHER

Present supply of rural teachers inadequate
Opportunities for social service

The improvement of rural health
Rural recreation

Other advantages of rural teaching

Freedom
Appreciation
Leadership
Opportunity for growth
Time for study
Larger net savings

Opportunities for advancement in rural education

Principalship of a consolidated school
Rural supervision

Departments of rural education in teacher training institutions

Past neglect requires present concentration

Need for federal aid

Call to the colors

Summary

In the previous chapter the helpers designed to aid the rural teacher were listed as books, magazines, bulletins, pictures, reading circles, teachers' meetings, correspondence courses, extension departments of normal schools and colleges, and rural school supervisors. In addition to these, the teacher was urged to avail herself of the help afforded by the knowledge and experience of pupils and patrons. Much special knowledge exists in the community and should be called upon for use in the school.

In the closing chapter, the reasons for undertaking the management of a rural school will now be discussed. The chapter will outline briefly the reasons which are at present inducing young people to teach rural schools, and will present the claims of some motives which should actuate many earnest, well-trained teachers to undertake this work.

Present Supply of Rural Teachers Inadequate.— Most of the teachers who are at present working in the one-teacher rural schools of our country are there by compulsion rather than choice. One expert who questioned a large number of rural teachers found that one teacher in a hundred expects to remain a country school teacher for a lifetime. Two reasons seem to govern the large majority of young men and women who hold such positions,— either a country school is the only school that desires their services, or they cannot be away from their country homes. Here and there is found a brilliant exception, the trained, successful teacher who has tried teaching in the country and teaching in the city, but really prefers the former. However, such instances are rare enough to be long remembered.

In considering the two classes which make up by far the larger part of the rural teaching force, one finds many whose services are not in demand for city schools. Cubberly, in his *Rural Life and Education*, makes only two general subdivisions of rural teachers when he says: "The teaching force in our rural schools, despite notable exceptions here and there, is as a class made up of either the older, least progressive and least successful teachers on the one hand, or of the young, poorly educated and inexperienced teachers on the other." Of these two

general classes the youthful, inexperienced teacher is usually to be preferred, for, while certain to make mistakes, she is not likely to be self-satisfied. Most of this class of country school teachers realize their need of education, and are earnestly striving to secure knowledge. Their ambition and studious habits are an inspiration to their pupils. The classes in the spring and summer terms of our normal schools and colleges are largely made up of these "young, poorly educated, and inexperienced teachers," and never was a body of students more sincere, earnest, and eager for instruction. The sad part of the situation is that the best of these young folks either go into some other profession, or are called into city schools as soon as they lose their extreme youth and inexperience.

Rural schools have no monopoly, however, on the "older, least progressive and least successful teachers." Many of this class are found in large city systems, especially where teachers are appointed for life. They probably were not less progressive and successful than others when appointed, but having either a permanent appointment or a "pull" with the local board, they have become self-satisfied, got into a rut, waxed indolent, and, as they grow older, become less and less competent to teach. No teacher is so hard to supervise as the experienced teacher who has become thoroughly convinced that, because she has taught a number of years, she knows all there is to know about teaching. Most of the habits of such a teacher are firmly set and often many of her teaching habits are not in line with modern pedagogy. Therefore, wherever there is close, expert supervision these teachers are quickly weeded out. As

there is less expert supervision in country schools than in city schools, more of these "moss-back" teachers flourish in rural districts.

Many skillful teachers in rural schools to-day are there because their homes are in the country, and they are needed at home. Perhaps they have aged parents or an invalid mother who needs their help with the younger children. They could not be spared from the home to go to the city for nine months of the year, but can easily be released for six hours a day during the winter months. No doubt this class would grow larger, to the great advantage of the rural school, if some plan could be devised by which rural teachers could feel sure of holding their positions as long as they were successful. This feeling of permanency exists in many city school systems, but is almost wholly absent from rural districts. As a consequence, many of these capable teachers leave the rural school after a few terms. Nothing could do more just now for the rural schools of America than state or national aid which would enable rural districts to offer salaries at least as large as those of the best city schools, so that capable teachers might be retained in their service.

Opportunities for Social Service. — In spite of the short terms, low salaries, loneliness, and inconvenience, however, the rural schools of the United States even now offer some great inducements to trained teachers, if they could only be brought to realize these advantages. One of the greatest of these is the opportunity to render a much-needed social service.

Most earnest young people desire to be engaged in some form of social service. They admire the men and women who serve their age in a large way in science, in

invention, in philanthropy, or in the various arts and professions. In teaching a country school, young people of this type may find an immediate opportunity for genuine social service. The whole nation depends upon the farm for food; it is the mission of the country to feed and clothe the world. The high cost of living is a problem of national importance, and rural education is a vital factor in its solution. Over a third of our people live in the country, moreover, and the welfare and standards of living of these thirty-eight million citizens are matters of vital significance to the whole nation.

The Improvement of Rural Health. — During the earlier period of our national history we have depended upon the farm to build rugged, healthy manhood and womanhood. Yet, in spite of the fact that the country should be a healthful place, investigation shows that, because of neglect, the country is lagging behind the city in this respect. Dr. J. L. Cooke, gymnasium director in the University of Minnesota, published the results of a long series of tests a few years ago showing that the bodily health and strength of city boys who enter the university is better than that of boys coming from the farms. The Reverend Claire S. Adams, in a rural survey made in Illinois, says: "Country people are constantly suffering from sickness, small and great, against which they feel themselves helpless. The spirit of rebellion against sickness is general in cities and towns. People there expect to be well. *But in the country they expect to be sick.*" The findings of Dr. Wood's study on this same point have already been cited (p. 63).

Since all the essentials for building and preserving good health are found in rural districts, it follows that

most rural ill-health is due to ignorance. There is an abundance of fresh air and sunlight in the country, yet tuberculosis is common in rural districts. Typhoid fever and hookworm are also found in some rural communities, where they might be easily prevented if people only possessed a knowledge of their nature and causes and the means of their prevention. Many an earnest youth admires the work of the great doctor or surgeon and yearns to serve humanity in this noble way. Cannot such a desire find partial fulfillment at least in teaching a group of country boys and girls the essentials of good health? Since "an ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure," surely the effective teaching of sanitation in our rural schools would be a social service of inestimable value to the nation at large.

Rural Recreation. — Another form of worth-while social service is found in the rural teacher's opportunity for teaching country children how to play. To one who has never learned the educative value of play, this may sound absurd, but it is offered as a serious statement of actual truth. There are many country schools where no games are known to the pupils except some form of baseball and prisoner's base. When a group of intelligent normal school seniors were examined recently, with a view to selecting some of the group to supervise play-ground activities in the training school, it was discovered that one-third of a class of thirty-six had never in their lives played a ring game or a singing game of any kind.

One of the crying social needs in rural districts is for coöperation. Another is for making country life appeal to young people. Since one reason for the avoidance of farm life by the young is the lack of recreation, both

these needs can be largely met by employing rural teachers who are aware of the educational value of play, trained for playground supervision, and full of the spirit of joyous activity which we call the play spirit. We regard it as a high type of social service to go to France or Belgium to teach games and tell stories to the stricken children there who are suffering from famine and shell shock. But is it any less serviceable or noble to bring the same joy and benefit to the stolid, overworked little men and women found in some of our rural schools? By all means the rural teacher should count play as one of her greatest opportunities for social service.

Other Advantages of Rural Teaching. — *Freedom.* — A rural teacher has abundant freedom. In city schools there are countless rules and precedents that the grade teacher must enforce, no matter how much they may hamper the expression of the teacher's own personality. The exact opposite is found in the rural schools; there is almost unlimited freedom as to method and management, and more or less freedom as to the subject matter taught. This freedom, well used, results in greater initiative upon the part of the teacher, greater independence of thought and action, greater development of the teacher's original ideas, and the growth of individuality. No quality is more highly prized or better compensated than initiative or originality. A wise college president often said that he would not employ a teacher in his college who had not had a chance to "find himself" by teaching in a rural school.

Appreciation. — Largely because the country teacher is not a small cog in the great machinery of education, as is so often the grade teacher of a big city system,

her work receives a greater reward in appreciation. No one is more honored in the rural community than an earnest, efficient teacher. In many city schools a teacher's only social life is found in association with other teachers. One snobbish young society woman in a small city refused to attend a reception to which some of the young women who taught in the city schools were invited, saying: "I do not care to associate with working girls." Of course no sensible teacher would "care to associate" with one so narrow and snobbish. But though this was an extreme case, the city teacher often meets with indifference, nevertheless, and for the first year or two is likely to be very lonely.

In rural districts, on the other hand, the teacher is an honored visitor in every home. No one, except perhaps the minister who occasionally visits the homes, is welcomed more hospitably. The teacher who is competent, kind, and interested is respected and loved by the pupils of the school. They will gladly make her an advisor, guide, and confidential friend. Ten years after a successful rural school has been taught, a farm family will frequently mention the teacher's name in tones of affection and with words of appreciation. In city schools, on the contrary, many pupils are unable to name their teachers for the five previous years, while even the mothers are often unable to give the names of their children's present teachers. Only exceptional city mothers make any attempt to become acquainted with the young women in charge of their children for a year.

Leadership. — In the country, the teacher has an opportunity to become a leader in the community. An efficient rural teacher who visits the homes of her pupils

in a spirit of true friendship will meet with no lack of cordiality. Whenever district schools are taught by teachers especially trained for their work, teachers who have a knowledge of rural conditions and rural needs, teachers inspired by an earnest desire to render genuine service to the school and the community, there is no trouble about the granting of leadership to teachers. Such teachers are sure to meet with quick responsiveness and ready appreciation. This appreciation and leadership gives self-confidence and poise to the young man or woman to whom it is accorded. Far from being rendered arrogant by such a tribute, the sincere teacher gains in humility and desire for service.

Opportunity for Growth. — In addition to the increased growth of personality, resulting from greater freedom and appreciation, the country teacher has great opportunity for professional and scholastic growth. These opportunities for growth are due to the varied nature of the teaching required and to the increased time for study. In teaching a single grade of a city school, little preparation is demanded after the first year. In an all-grade rural school, however, because of the crowded program, a teacher is forced to try the elimination of subjects and parts of subjects, the combination of classes, and the correlation of studies. Each of these devices makes work more interesting, yet calls for thought and judgment upon the part of the teacher. Every day is a challenge to the skill and knowledge of such a teacher; and in meeting this challenge, growth is inevitable.

Time for Study. — Since there is little social or recreational activity in country districts, the rural



PROSPECTIVE RURAL TEACHERS

A group of students preparing for rural teaching at the Iowa State Teachers College, Cedar Falls, Iowa.

teacher has time for study and self-improvement. The work of the advanced grades will often compel a young teacher to study, because the very attempt to make the lessons plain to the pupils will reveal the teacher's own lack of understanding. Then the difficulty of teaching so many grades and so many subjects will drive a young teacher to the study of educational magazines and books written for teachers. The short terms common to most rural districts afford opportunity for teachers who have awakened to their own educational need to obtain further knowledge by attending the spring term of some high school training class or normal school.

Hitherto few normal schools have offered courses intended directly to aid rural teachers in solving their problems, but recently the interest in rural schools has caused more and more attention to be paid to rural needs. Of course the poorly-prepared country teacher needs academic knowledge, but she can acquire much of this by her own efforts, as she comes to realize her limitations in this respect. Frequently, however, she does not know how much she needs rural sociology, rural school management, and special methods for rural schools. But the extension departments of those normal schools, and colleges which have created departments of rural education, are doing much to aid country teachers in all these lines.

Larger Net Savings. — Some of the causes that have hindered the most ambitious and progressive of our young country teachers from continuing in rural school work have been the short terms, low salaries, and lack of prospects for promotion in the rural field. The first two factors are as yet practically unchanged. Few

states have either terms or salaries in their rural schools which are at all comparable to those in their cities. When it comes to the net savings of teachers, however, the disparity is much less. Because living is usually cheaper, the standards of dress lower, and the temptation for the useless spending of money less, the teacher of a six months' country school frequently finishes her term with more actual cash on hand than the city teacher who has taught three months longer at a higher salary. Where this is the case the rural teacher who resides in the country can often pay her expenses for the spring term at a normal school or college, having gained both the time and the money for this by teaching in the district school instead of in the city. Where the teacher's home is on the farm her vacation is not time wasted, and the cost of living is not an item to be considered. Consequently the short term is not always a serious handicap to the rural teacher personally.

Opportunities for Advancement in Rural Education. — Until recently there has been little chance for promotion in the field of rural education. The young man or woman who had taught a few district schools successfully was usually promoted into city school work. There promotion to a principalship and eventually to a supervisorship or superintendency were visible spurs to ambition. In recent years, however, our country has grown to realize the importance of the district school, and there are many positions open in the field of rural education. Of course most of these demand a normal school diploma or a college degree, in addition to successful experience in rural school teaching, but the latter is an essential requirement in all such educational work.

Principalship of a Consolidated School. — One desirable position of this type is the principalship of a consolidated school. There are already twelve thousand consolidated schools in the United States and since the war, the states and counties, aided by the national government, have been speeding up the work of building permanent roads. As soon as transportation makes possible the union of several district schools into one, the consolidated rural school will be a still greater factor in our national education.

Rural Supervision. — Another branch of rural work that will furnish positions worth holding is found in the various forms of rural supervision. In many states up to the present time, the only nominal supervisor has been the county superintendent, and his work has demanded such slight preparation and has been so poorly compensated that it furnished little incentive to ambition. Many states have been requiring the possession of a first-class certificate as the sole educational equipment in their county superintendent, and some demand no educational qualification whatever. Recently, however, especially in the West and South, the office of county superintendent is gaining in power, influence, and compensation. The superintendent has, as he should have, a corps of assistants and at least one clerk. Some states have inaugurated township or district supervision to the great betterment of their rural schools. Wherever there is an awakening to the needs of the district schools, some attempt is made to furnish expert supervision. Toward such positions the successful and ambitious rural teacher may direct her energies, for no matter what may be the demands as to academic

preparation, successful teaching in rural schools is an essential for expert rural supervision.

Departments of Rural Education in Teacher-Training Institutions. — Many of our universities, colleges, and normal schools have recently created departments of rural education. For the success of this work an increasingly large number of college trained men and women who have had recent contact with rural schools is sorely needed. Too many people in such positions are basing their theories upon dim memories of rural schools, known twenty-five years ago. Here is a goal worth the most ambitious endeavor of the brightest and most successful country teacher. It may require eight or ten years of additional schooling, but the compensation for such effort would be adequate, and the opportunities for service in such a field are large enough to satisfy the most ambitious.

In the work of training teachers for rural schools there are many openings. In very recent years, a number of states have established county training classes and teacher training departments in high schools. For this work in the preparation of rural teachers many able instructors are needed, preferably college trained, but they should undoubtedly be country bred and experienced in rural school teaching. The pedagogic and sociological problems confronting the teacher are widely different in city and country, hence these directors of rural training must know the country and the country schools. Such positions, offering salaries that range from \$1000 to \$2400 a year are going begging.

Past Neglect Requires Present Concentration. — Because of the neglect of rural education many have lost

interest in country school teaching. Neglect is now past, however, so let the ambitious young man or woman who has made a success of rural teaching continue in the work. By seeking for ease or convenience you may be barring the road to your greatest opportunity for service and success. Nowhere is there greater need of trained and successful teachers, nowhere are the opportunities greater for growth and social service, and no field affords better opportunities for deserved promotion.

Need for Federal Aid. — There is little doubt but that federal aid to rural schools will soon become a reality. Rural schools have been so neglected that the rural education situation is fast becoming a national menace. When educational advantages have become equalized by state and federal aid, there will be greater and greater opportunity for service and progress in this field. Let the wide-awake, rural teacher note the signs of the times, therefore, and secure the knowledge and training that will fit her for larger service.

Call to the Colors. — The present unrest and disorder has focused national attention upon the public school as the country's chief hope and dependence. In the midst of our dismay with inadequate salaries and the consequent insufficient supply of teachers, it is the rural schools that have suffered most. The cause is great enough to enlist the most devoted, efficient, and patriotic teachers; for it is not alone the fate of eight million of the best youth of our country which hangs in the balance. The whole future of American rural life, and therefore of our national life, is at stake. Unless the American rural school is transformed within the next ten years,

America will have failed to solve her greatest educational problem.

EXERCISES

1. State the exact needs of the rural school you know best, and tell how each need can be best supplied.
2. What form of service in the field of rural education seems most desirable to you? Give full reasons for your answer.
3. Plan an educational campaign against some disease common to your locality.
4. Give two benefits derived from rural teaching not mentioned in this chapter.
5. Can country school teaching ever be made as desirable from the standpoint of material convenience as work in city schools?
6. If city school teaching must always be easier and more convenient, what motives must actuate trained teachers to work in district schools?
7. What part should teachers take in furthering legislation designed to better school conditions?
8. Give three reasons why every rural teacher should be a member of the National Education Association.
9. Name three other national agencies that are seeking to improve rural life conditions, and state what you know of the work of each.
10. List the benefits you expect your school to derive from your study of rural school management in the order of their importance.

REFERENCES

Betts and Hall — *Better Rural Schools*, Chapters 29 and 30.

Butterfield, K. L. — *Chapters in Rural Progress*, Chapter 9.

Culter and Stone — *The Rural School: Its Methods and Management*, Chapter 18.

Fiske, G. W. — *The Challenge of the Country*, Chapters 5, 6 and 8.

McKeever, W. A. — *Farm Boys and Girls*, Chapter 13.

Wilson, W. H. — *The Evolution of the Country Community*, Chapter 13.

APPENDIX

I. SUGGESTIONS ON THE TEACHING OF RURAL SCHOOL MANAGEMENT AND THE USE OF THIS BOOK AS A TEXT

(BY THE EDITOR)

Normal school instructors and training class teachers who use this book as a text will find it better suited to this purpose, it is believed, than any other volume yet published. One reason for this is that it contains no general sections or theoretical discussions on subjects outside the immediate need and comprehension of the young rural teacher. Every chapter deals specifically and definitely with the concrete problems of the beginning teacher. Other characteristics which make the book especially valuable as a text are its clearness and conciseness, its variety of illustration, and its practical advice and direction. Especially helpful also for this purpose are its well-selected exercises and references and the admirable summaries at the close of each chapter.

Those who employ the book as a text for courses in rural school management may use it in either of two ways. It may be used in the first place as an exact and definite guide with the class following the text closely and logically from beginning to end. This will probably be the best procedure for the inexperienced normal instructor who has not taught courses of this type before. Teachers of more experience will probably have definite outlines of their own which they wish to follow,

however, while still others will prefer to use the project method and let the class suggest the particular problems of management and control to be considered, and the order in which they desire to attack these difficulties. In either of the latter situations this book will still be found quite as useful as in the first. All that need be done under these circumstances is to change the order of assignment for the various chapters, selecting those anywhere throughout the text which apply to the particular topics under consideration. In this the carefully planned table of contents and detailed index will assist greatly. Rural school management, because of its urgent and problematic nature, is especially well suited to the project method, and such an individual re-organization of the chapters as that suggested will be found both easy and practical in using this method.

A few other specific suggestions for the teaching of this subject and the use of this text are submitted below.

General Suggestions

1. Some of the exercises at the close of each chapter suggest something definite to be done. The teacher may think of other activities of greater profit for her class, perhaps, but at least one project should accompany each chapter.
2. The references following the various chapters have been carefully selected. Some profitable readings may have been omitted, however, and new books are constantly being written. Use the references suggested as a minimum list rather than as a completed bibliography.
3. The keeping of notebooks will be found helpful to the class. These should contain outlines of outside readings, practical or helpful suggestions from class discussions, notes on supplementary lectures given by the teacher or others, and the names of additional new books used to supplement the course.

4. Encourage individual initiative by the occasional assignment of different subjects to each pupil for written reports or brief talks. Let each talk be followed by general discussion or have a class discussion after all the reports have been given.

5. See that your students become thoroughly acquainted throughout the training course with their own school law and state course of study and that they have actual practice in keeping attendance records and preparing reports.

6. Collect bulletins, leaflets, circulars, etc., and classify and file them under topic headings of the course, using a letter file or bulletin boxes for the purpose. Such library covers or bulletin boxes may be purchased of H. Schulz and Company, Chicago, or of B. G. Hughes and Bro., 133 Mulberry Street, New York City.

7. Collect catalogs of school furniture and equipment, playground apparatus, school books, etc., and file as above for references.

8. Put up a small bulletin board on which to place rural school notices and articles.

9. Organize a Country Life Club among your students, if conditions are favorable, for the outside discussion of classroom topics and other activities.

10. Have brief papers written occasionally to summarize class discussions.

11. Make class discussions vigorous and enthusiastic. Assign individual references for special report and have students stand, face the class, and speak distinctly in reporting.

12. Occasional class debates will be found interesting. For this purpose divide the class into two groups, allowing each member to speak from three to five minutes.

13. *Jean Mitchell's School, The Evolution of Dodd, The Brown Mouse, Successful Teaching in Rural Schools, and New Schools for Old* should be read by the class early in the course or preceding it.

Building

1. Collect photographs and plans for country school buildings and grounds in your own locality and elsewhere to illustrate neglect and improvement in this line.

2. Take the class to visit a modern rural school if one is accessible. If not, take them to the best available city school and point out the hygienic features of lighting, seating, etc., that should be found in rural schools.

3. Have the class draw floor plans for new model buildings embodying their own ideas of school architecture; also plans for remodeling buildings. In this connection make a special study of your own state rural school plans.

4. Have the class draw on the board a cross-section diagram of a jacketed stove to illustrate its plan of covering and the movement of air. Let them also make a pasteboard model of a jacketed stove to clarify the principles involved.

5. Have class members secure color cards from local paint shops and make combinations showing good color schemes for the walls, woodwork, and ceiling of rural schools.

6. Collect the catalogs of various seating firms and have the class study and criticize different models of seats.

7. Let the class suggest original plans for the management of janitor work and prepare a list of materials and supplies needed.

Grounds

1. Have the class draw landscape plans for model school grounds. Draw a plan also of some familiar school grounds showing their present condition and possible landscape improvement.

2. Have students work out selected lists of trees, shrubs, vines, and flowers for your particular locality.

3. Let the class draw a plan of a school garden and offer suggestions for its planting and management. Also work out a set of arithmetic problems based on the garden and discuss its use as a basis for work in language and nature study.

4. Visit a well-equipped school playground or public playground with your class, and have them work out estimates of the cost of essentials in playground equipment.

5. If time permits, a model school plant, including building, landscape plan, and playground apparatus, may be worked out on the sand table as a summary of principles learned on these topics.

Organization and Management

1. Make some provision for keeping a register and have each member of the class actually make out schedules and other school records.
2. List original ideas and suggestions for opening exercises.
3. Have students prepare from personal experience a list of good and bad punishments.
4. Conduct a question box on troublesome questions of discipline as a summary of this discussion.
5. Let the class do the housekeeping of the normal department or quarters, each having assigned tasks.

Educative Seat Work

1. Obtain samples of the various types of seat work procurable from three or four of the leading firms dealing in supplies for primary schools; and by the application of standards, have the class decide which should be discarded, which can be reproduced profitably, and which should be purchased outright.
2. Have each member of the class plan at least one profitable sand table project, and mimeograph these plans for class distribution.
3. Plan an exhibit of educative seat work for the close of the term, including the commercial samples endorsed by the class, the booklets and posters made for illustrative purposes, some seat work that correlates with each primary school subject, and at least one completed sand table project.
4. The Dopp primitive life series is mentioned in Chapter X as an example of the type of textbook containing suggestions for correlated seat work. Let the class see how many books of this type can be found, striving to obtain as many for varying grades and subjects as possible. List those found, with titles, prices, and publishers.

Community Work

1. Redirect the rural curriculum. Have the class read as extensively on this topic as time will permit; then ask each member to prepare a list of suggestive examples of such redirection.

2. Have each student work out a good school entertainment program for a different special day. Then mimeograph copies so that each member of the class may have a carefully prepared set for future use.
3. Have the class prepare a list of available speakers for local school lecture courses.
4. Secure addresses of the secretaries of farmers' clubs from the Extension Division of your State College of Agriculture and write for newspaper or personal accounts of club activities, programs, etc.
5. Take the whole class out to attend a meeting of some good local farmers' club.
6. Let the class write a model constitution for a farmers' club; also make a list of good topics for discussion at meetings; and prepare one sample program.
7. Prepare a list of ideas, games, and activities for the social hour of a farmers' club.
8. List possible activities for boys' and girls' clubs; write letters also to national and state leaders for information.
9. The rural normal class in coöperation with the rest of the school may conduct an Elson or Turner art exhibit, thus providing evening programs and lectures for the public.
10. One or more educational excursions may be undertaken by the training class during the year. Each member may earn her own money for these.
11. Let each member of the class draw original plans for a convenient farmhouse (floor plans only).
12. Have the class attend the local farmers' institute, or visit a local Grange if one is available.
13. Write your State Highway Commission at the capital for literature on roads, and have the class make a list of ways in which rural teachers may assist in securing better roads.
14. Have each member of the class write a paper on her dream, prophecy, or vision of the future country life. Such a paper should describe an ideal rural community showing possibilities of the future country school, home, church, farm, business enterprises, roads, etc.

II. SOME GOOD BOOKS FOR RURAL SCHOOL LIBRARIES

A. One Hundred Books for Primary Reading

ADAMS, *Five Little Friends*. Macmillan

BAILEY, *For the Children's Hour, Book One, Book Two*. Bradley

BAKER AND THORNDIKE, *Everyday Classics, Primer, First Reader, Second Reader*. Macmillan

BAUGH AND HORN, *New American Readers, Book One, Book Two*. Ginn

BLAISDELL, *Bunny Rabbit's Diary, Cherry Tree Children, Twilight Town*. Little, Brown

BLAISDELL AND BLAISDELL, *Child Life Readers, Primer, First Reader, Second Reader*. Macmillan

BLAISDELL AND BLAISDELL, *The Rhyme and Story, Primer, Boy Blue and His Friends*. Little, Brown

BLODGETT, *The Blodgett Readers, First Reader, Second Reader*. Ginn

BROWN AND BAILEY, *Jingle Primer*. American Book

BURCHILL, ETTINGER, AND SHIMER, *The Progressive Road to Reading, Story Steps, First Reader, Second Reader*. Silver, Burdett

CHANCE, *Little Folks of Many Lands*. Ginn

CHENEY, *Picture and Story Series, Boys and Girls from Storyland, Tell Me a Story Picture Book*. Lippincott

COE AND CHRISTIE, *Story Hour Readers, Primer, Book One, Book Two*. American Book

COE-SPECHT, *Easy Steps in Reading*. American Book

CRAIK, *Bow-Wow and Mew-Mew*. Bobbs-Merrill

DIETZ, *Good Times on the Farm*. Newson

DRESSEL, ROBBINS, AND GRAFF, *The New Barnes Readers, Primer, Book One, Book Two*. Laidlaw

DUNLOP AND JONES, *Playtime Stories*. American Book

ELSON, *The Elson Readers, Primer, Book One, Book Two*. Scott, Foresman

FASSETT, *Beacon Method of Reading, New Beacon Primer, Beacon First Reader, Beacon Second Reader*. Ginn

FIELD, *The Field Primer*. Ginn

FIRMAN AND MALTBY, *The Winston Readers, Primer, First Reader, Second Reader*. Winston

Fox, *The Fox Readers, Primer, First Reader, Second Reader.* Putnam.

Fox, *Indian Primer.* American Book

GROVER, *Sunbonnet Babies Primer, Sunbonnet Babies in Holland, The Outdoor Primer, Overall Boys — First Reader, Overall Boys in Switzerland.* Rand, McNally

Art Literature Primer, Art Literature Reader, Book One, Folk Lore Primer, Folk Lore Reader, Book One. Atkinson

HAWKES, *Eskimo Land.* Ginn

LARUE, *Under the Story Tree.* Macmillan

McCULLOUGH, *Little Stories for Little People.* American Book

McMANUS AND HAAREN, *The Natural Method Readers, Primer, First Reader, Second Reader.* Scribner

MEYER, *The Outdoor Book.* Little, Brown

MURRAY, *The Wide Awake Series, The Wide Awake Junior, The Wide Awake Primer, The Wide Awake First Reader.* Little, Brown

NICE, *The Adventures of the Greyfur Family, The Greyfur Neighbors.* Lippincott

OLMSTEAD AND GRANT, *Ned and Nan in Holland.* Row, Peterson

PERKINS, *The Dutch Twins Primer.* Houghton Mifflin

POTTER, *Story of Peter Rabbit.* Warne

ROSS, *Reading to Find Out.* Macmillan

SEARSON, MARTIN, AND TINLEY, *Studies in Reading, Primer, First Grade Reader, Second Grade Reader.* University Pub. Co.

SERL, *In Fableland, In the Animal World.* Silver, Burdett

SILVESTER AND PETER, *Happy Hour Stories.* American Book

SKINNER, *Happy Tales for Story Time.* American Book

SKINNER AND WICKES, *A Child's Own Book of Verse, Book One.* Macmillan

SMYTHE, *Reynard the Fox.* American Book

SPAULDING AND BRYCE, *Aldine Readers, Primer, Book One, Book Two.* Newson

STEWART, *Country Life Readers, First Book, Second Book.* Johnson

TERRY, *History Stories of Other Lands, Book One — Tales from Far and Near, Book Two — Tales of Long Ago.* Row, Peterson

VAN SICKLE, SEEGMILLER, AND JENKINS, *The Riverside Readers, Primer, First Reader, Second Reader.* Houghton Mifflin

WAYLAND, *History Stories for Primary Grades.* Macmillan

WITHERS, BROWNE, AND TATE, *The Child's World Readers, Primer, First Reader, Second Reader*. Johnson
YOUNG AND FIELD, *Literary Readers, Book One, Book Two*. Ginn

B. Primary Picture Books

BERGENGREN, Jane, Joseph, and John. Atlantic
CRANE, *Three Bears and Mother Hubbard*. Lane
ELKIN, *Little People*. McKay
MCLOUGHLIN, *Big Picture Series, Five Books*. Bradley
SAGE, *Rhymes of Real Children* (pictures by Jessie Wilcox Smith).
Duffield. *Mother Goose* (pictures by Jessie Wilcox Smith). Dodd,
Mead

C. Books for Combined Reading Classes in Lower Grades

(Grades 3 to 5)

ANDERSON, *Danish Fairy Legends and Tales*. Macmillan
ANDREWS, *Seven Little Sisters*. Ginn
BAILEY, *Once Upon a Time Animal Stories, For the Children's Hour — Book Three, Stories of Great Adventure*. Bradley
BALDWIN, *Fifty Famous Stories Retold, Fifty Famous People*. American Book
BURGESS, *Old Mother West Wind, Mother West Wind's Animal Friends, Mother West Wind's Neighbors*. Little, Brown
CARPENTER, *Around the World with the Children*. American Book
CARROLL (JOHNSON), *Alice's Adventures in Wonderland*. American Book
CHAFFEE, *The Adventures of Twinkly Eyes, Black Bear, Trail and Tree Top*. Bradley
CHAMBERLAIN, *Home and World Series, How We Are Clothed, How We Are Fed, How We Are Sheltered, How We Travel*. Macmillan
COLLODI, *Pinocchio*. Macmillan
DOPP, *Early Cave Men, Later Cave Men, Tree Dwellers*. Rand, McNally
EGGLESTON, *Stories of Great Americans for Little Americans*. American Book
GRIMM, *German Household Tales*. Houghton Mifflin
GULICK, *Gulick Hygiene Series, Book One — Good Health*. Ginn
HALL, *Viking Tales*. Rand, McNally

KELLY, *Short Stories of Our Shy Neighbors*. American Book

LANSING, *Fairy Tales — Book One, Fairy Tales — Book Two*. Ginn

LONG, *Little Brother to the Bear, Ways of Wood Folk, Wilderness Ways*. Ginn

LUCIA, *Peter and Polly in Autumn, Peter and Polly in Winter, Peter and Polly in Spring*. American Book

MACDONALD, *The Princess and the Goblin, The Princess and Curdie*. Lippincott

MIRICK, *Home Life Around the World*. Houghton Mifflin

PERKINS, *The Dutch Twins, The Eskimo Twins, The Italian Twins, The Japanese Twins*. Houghton Mifflin

PROUDFOOT, *The Hiawatha Industrial Reader*. Rand, McNally

ROBERTS, *Children of the Wild, Hoof and Claw, Neighbors Unknown*. Macmillan

SCHWARTZ, *Grasshopper Green's Garden, Wilderness Babies*. Little, Brown

SCHWARTZ, *A Friend Indeed*. Macmillan

SHILLIG, *The Four Wonders*. Rand, McNally

SKINNER, *Tales and Plays of Robin Hood*. American Book

SPYRI, *Heidi*. Lippincott

STEVENSON, *Child's Garden of Verses*. Lippincott

TERRY, *History Stories of Other Lands, Book Three — The Beginnings, Book Four — Lord and Vassal*. Row, Peterson

WARREN, *Little Pioneers*. Rand, McNally

WIGGIN AND SMITH, *The Posy Ring*. Houghton Mifflin

D. Books for Combined Reading Classes in Upper Grades

(Grades 5 to 8)

ALLEN, *Geographical and Industrial Studies — Asia, North America, South America, The New Europe*. Ginn

ANDREWS, *Ten Boys Who Lived on the Road from Long Ago to Now*. Ginn

BAILEY, *Broad Stripes and Bright Stars*. Winston

BALDWIN, *Four Great Americans*. American Book

CLARKE, *Stories from the Arabian Nights*. American Book

DUNCAN, EVANS AND DUNCAN, *Farm Life Readers*. Silver, Burdett

FIELD AND NEARING, *Community Civics*. Macmillan

HAWTHORNE, *Wonder Book*. Houghton Mifflin

INGRAHAM, *The Story of Democracy*. Macmillan
KIPLING, *Jungle Book*. Century
LAMB, *Tales from Shakespeare*. Houghton Mifflin
LASELLE, *The Home and Country Readers, Book One, Book Two*.
Little, Brown
MCREADY, *Rural Science Reader*. Heath
McDONALD AND DALRYMPLE, *Little People Everywhere* (selections
from series of fourteen books). Little, Brown
PARSONS, *The Land of Fair Play*. Scribner
Peeps at Many Lands Series (a series of eleven books by various
authors). Macmillan
PERRY AND BEEBE, *Four American Pioneers*. American Book
RUSKIN, *King of the Golden River*. Houghton Mifflin
SETON, *Wild Animal Ways*. Houghton Mifflin
SMITH, *Our Neighborhood*. Winston
STEWART, *Country Life Readers, Third Book*. Johnson
STOCKTON, *Stories of the Spanish Main*. Macmillan
TAPPAN, *The Farmer and His Friends, Heroes of Progress*. Houghton
Mifflin
TERRY, *History Stories of Other Lands, Book V — The New Liberty,
Book VI — The Modern World*. Row, Peterson
WARREN, *King Arthur and His Knights*. Rand, McNally
WERTHNER, *How Man Makes Markets*. Macmillan
WIGGIN, *Polly Oliver's Problem*. Houghton Mifflin

E. Material to Supplement Adopted Textbooks in the Various Subjects

Reading

BAKER AND CARPENTER, *Language Readers*. Macmillan
BOLENIUS, *The Boys' and Girls' Readers, for Silent and Oral Read-
ing*. Houghton Mifflin
DAVIDSON AND ANDERSON, *The Lincoln Readers*. Laurel.
LEWIS AND ROWLAND, *The Silent Readers*. Winston
MILLER AND HUGHES, *Midway Readers*. Laidlaw
WATKINS, *How to Teach Silent Reading to Beginners*. Lippincott
(In addition to the foregoing list, Teacher's Manuals and sets of
readers for class use in each grade should be selected from several

of the series listed under primary reading. Sets of content readers should be selected also as suggested for use in combined classes.)

Language

BARNES, *English in the Country School*. Row, Peterson

DEMING, *Language Games*. Beckley

DRIGGS, *Our Living Language*. University

KING, *Language Games*. Educational

(Several of the following books should also appear upon the shelves of the rural school library, at least one set, not used as the basic text, being provided in numbers sufficient for class use.)

DRIGGS, *Live Language Lessons* (Three Book Series). University

HOSIC-HOOPER, *Child's Composition Book*. Rand, McNally

PEARSON AND KIRCHWEY, *Essentials of English* (Two Book Series).

American Book

POTTER, JESCHKE, AND GILLET, *Oral and Written English* (Two Book Series). Ginn

ROBBINS AND ROW, *Essential Studies in English* (Books One and Two, with Teacher's Manuals), *Work and Play with Language*. Row, Peterson

SIMONS, ORR, AND GIVEN, *Better English for Speaking and Writing* (Three Books). Winston

SPAULDING AND BRYCE, *Aldine Language Series* (Books One, Two, and Three), with Teacher's Manual for each. Newson

Spelling

AYERS-BUCKINGHAM, *Buckingham's Extension of the Ayers Spelling Scale*. Bureau of Educational Research, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill.

PRYOR AND PITTMAN, *A Guide to the Teaching of Spelling*. Macmillan

TIDYMAN, *Teaching of Spelling*. World Book

Geography

ATWOOD AND THOMAS, *Teaching the New Geography*. Ginn

McMURRY, *Type Study Series* (Three Books). Macmillan

(In addition to these and the geographical readers found in the reading lists, the following basic texts should be in the library, at least one series in sufficient numbers for class use.)

BRIGHAM AND MCFARLANE, *Essentials of Geography* (Two Book Series), *Manual for Teachers*. American Book
FAIRBANKS, *Home Geography for Primary Grades*. Educational
FRYE-ATWOOD, *New Geography* (Two Book Series). Ginn
KING, *Primary Geography*. Scribner
MCMURRY AND PARKINS, *Geographies* (Two Book Series). *Teachers' Manual* by Parkins. Macmillan
SHEPHERD, *Geography for Beginners*. Rand, McNally
SMITH, *Human Geography* (Four Book Series). Winston
TARR AND MCMURRY, *New Geographies* (Two Book Series). Macmillan

Hygiene

ANDRESS, GRIFFITH, AND PETERSON, *Child Health Organization Series* (four books for use in primary grades). Macmillan
ANDREES, *Health Education in Rural Schools*. Houghton Mifflin

(In addition to the above, bulletins on sanitation should be secured from various sources and the following basic texts should be added, at least one series being provided for class use in addition to the textbooks regularly used.)

GULICK, *Hygiene Series* (Two Book Course). Ginn
O'SHEA AND KELLOGG, *The Everyday Health Series, Book One—Building Health Habits, Book Two—Keeping the Body in Health*. Macmillan
WILEY, *Wiley's Health Series* (Three Books). Rand, McNally
WINSLOW, *Healthy Living* (Books One and Two). Merrill

Arithmetic

CALFEE, *Rural Arithmetic*. Ginn
HARRIS AND WALDO, *Number Games for Primary Grades*. Beckley. *First Journeys in Numberland*. Scott, Foresman
MADDEN AND TURNER, *A Rural Arithmetic*. Houghton Mifflin
STUDEBAKER, *Economy Practice Exercises in Arithmetic*. Scott, Foresman
WENTWORTH AND SMITH, *Work and Play with Numbers*. Ginn

(Besides these the following basic books should be in the library, at least one series, different from that used in the school, being supplied in numbers sufficient for class use.)

ANDERSON, *The Anderson Arithmetic* (Three Book Series). Silver, Burdett

HOYT AND PEET, *Everyday Arithmetic* (Three Book Series). Houghton Mifflin

THORNDIKE, *The Thorndike Arithmetics* (Three Book Series). Rand, McNally

WENTWORTH-SMITH, *Essentials in Arithmetic* (Five Book Series). Ginn

History and Civics

BENEZET, *Young People's History of the World War*. Macmillan

BLAISDELL AND BALL, *The Child's Book of American History, Pioneers of America, Log Cabin Days*. Little, Brown

GUERBER, *Story of the Greeks, Story of the Romans, Story of the English*. American Book

HART, *Source Readers in American History* (Four Book Series). Macmillan

McMURRY, *Pioneer History Stories* (Three Book Series). Macmillan

MOLEY AND COOK, *Lessons in Democracy*. Macmillan

NIDA, *The Dawn of American History in Europe, Following Columbus, Following the Frontier*. Macmillan

TAPPAN, *American Hero Stories, An Elementary History of Our Country, Our European Ancestors*. Houghton Mifflin

(In addition to the above, the following basic books should appear, at least one set in sufficient numbers for class use.)

BEARD AND BAGLEY, *A First Book in American History, Our Old World Background, The History of the American People, Teacher's Manual*. Macmillan

BOURNE AND BENTON, *Introductory American History, History of the United States*. Heath

BURNHAM, *Hero Tales from History, Our Beginnings in Europe and America, The Making of Our Country*. Winston

GUILTEAU, *Preparing for Citizenship*. Houghton Mifflin

Nature Study

BLANCHAN, *Bird Neighbors. Grossett. Birds Worth Knowing*. Doubleday, Page

BURGESS, *The Burgess Bird Book for Children, The Burgess Animal Book for Children*. Little, Brown

CHAPMAN, *What Bird Is That? Our Winter Birds.* Appleton

COMSTOCK, *Handbook of Nature Study.* Comstock

DAULTON, *Wings and Stings.* Rand, McNally

DICKERSON, *Moths and Butterflies.* Ginn

HARDY, *Nature's Wonder Lore.* Rand, McNally

HOLDEN, *Real Things in Nature.* Macmillan

HOLLAND, *Butterfly Guide.* Doubleday, Page

HURLBERT, *Forest Neighbors.* Row, Peterson

JONES-WEIMER, *Chats in the Zoo.* Rand, McNally

MORLEY, *Flowers and Their Friends.* Ginn

PORTER, *Moths of the Limberlost.* Doubleday, Page

REED, *Bird Guide — Land Birds East of the Rockies, Flower Guide — Wild Flowers East of the Rockies.* Doubleday, Page

ROGERS, *Tree Guide — Trees East of the Rockies.* Doubleday, Page

SHARP, *The Year Out-of-Doors, Ways of the Woods.* Houghton Mifflin

STOKES, *Ten Common Trees.* American Book

WALKER, *Our Birds and Their Nestlings.* American Book

WEED, *Flower Families.* Lippincott

Industrial Arts

DUNN, *Educative Seat Work.* State Normal, Farmville, Va.

FLAGG, *A Handbook of Elementary Sewing.* Little, Brown

GILMAN AND WILLIAMS, *Seat Work and Industrial Occupations.* Macmillan

MCKEE, *Purposeful Handwork.* Macmillan

McMURRY, EGGERS, AND McMURRY, *The Teaching of Industrial Arts.* Macmillan

MARTEN, *Manual Training-Play Problems for Boys and Girls.* Macmillan

WESTCOTT, *The Teaching of Seat Work.* 4725 South Aldrich Ave., Minneapolis

WINSLOW, *Elementary Industrial Arts.* Macmillan

Physical Education

BANCROFT, *Games for the Playground, Home, School and Gymnasium.* Macmillan

ELMORE, *A Practical Handbook of Games*. Macmillan
 HOFER, *Children's Old and New Singing. Games*. Flanagan
 PEARL AND BROWN, *Health by Stunts*. Macmillan
 WILLIAMS, *Healthful Living*. Macmillan

(In addition to the above books, the following bulletins contain excellent material for use in rural schools.)

Course in Physical Training, Department of Public Instruction, Trenton, N. J.

Manual of Physical Education, Department of Education, Montgomery, Ala.

Physical Training, Department of Public Instruction, Lansing, Mich.
Social Plays, Games, etc. Office of Indian Affairs, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.

Rural and Small Community Recreation. Playground Association, Madison Ave., New York, N. Y.

Music

BELL, *The Singing Circle*. Longmans, Green

DANN, *Music Course* (Six Book Series) with *Teacher's Manual*. American Book

MC LAUGHLIN AND GILCHRIST, *New Educational Music Course* (Two Book Course) with *Teacher's Edition for Elementary Grades*. Ginn

(In case the school is furnished with a Victrola or graphonola, the following free pamphlets should be secured before new records are purchased and kept as part of the school library.)

The Victrola in Rural Schools. Editorial Department, Victor Talking Machine Co., Camden, N. J.

Music in the Rural Schools, Literature and Music, New Columbia Records for Kindergarten and Primary Grades. Editorial Department, Columbia Graphophone Co., Woolworth Building, New York.

Agriculture

BAILEY, *School Book of Farming*. Macmillan

COBB, *Garden Steps*. Silver, Burdett

COLVIN AND STEVENSON, *Farm Projects*. Macmillan

HATCH AND HAZELWOOD, *Elementary Agriculture with Practical Arithmetic*. Row, Peterson

MANN, *Beginnings in Agriculture*. Macmillan

NOLAN, *One Hundred Lessons in Agriculture*. Row, Peterson

(A large assortment of bulletins from the Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C., the extension department of the nearest Agricultural College and various other sources, should be procured, some of them in numbers sufficient for class use.)

Reference Books

APPLETON, *Young People's Encyclopedia*. Appleton

CHAMPLIN, *Cyclopedia of Common Things, Cyclopedia of Persons and Places*. Holt

Pictured Encyclopedia. Compton.

Imperial Atlas. Rand, McNally

New International Year Book. Dodd, Mead

LEWIS, *The Winston Simplified Dictionary*, also the Primary Edition. Winston

O'SHEA AND OTHERS, *The World Book* — 1919 Edition, Ten Volumes. Quarrie Co.

World Almanac — current year. New York World

Magazines

Current Events. Washington, D. C.

Everyland. Everyland Co., 160 5th Ave., New York

Independent. New York, N. Y.

Literary Digest. Funk & Wagnalls Co., New York, N. Y.

Little Folks. S. S. Cassino, Malden, Mass.

National Geographic Magazine. Hubbard Memorial Hall, Washington, D. C.

Nature Study Review. Comstock Publishing Co., Ithaca, N. Y.

Pathfinder. Washington, D. C.

Popular Mechanics. No. 6 N. Michigan Ave., Chicago, Ill.

School Arts Magazine. No. 120 Boylston St., Boston, Mass.

St. Nicholas. Century Publishing Co., New York

Youth's Companion. Perry Mason Co., Boston, Mass.

III. LIBRARY LISTS

Books for Boys and Girls. Public Library, Newark, N. J.

Books for a Child's Own Library. Delaware Parent-Teacher Association, Wilmington, Del.

Heroism, A Reading List for Boys and Girls. New York Public Library

Holiday Books for Boys and Girls. New York Public Library

LOWE, *Literature for Children*. Macmillan

Minnesota Library List for Elementary and Rural Schools. Department of Education, St. Paul

NEWBURY, Some Suggestions for a Library for a One-Room School, found in Rural School Leaflet No. 3, entitled *Modern Equipment for One-Teacher Schools*. Bureau of Education, Department of Interior, Washington, D. C.

One Thousand Good Books for Children. H. W. Wilson Co., New York

Stories, Legends, Songs, and Plays for Christmas. New York Public Library

The Book Shelf. R. R. Bowker Co., 62 W. 45th St., New York, N. Y.

IV. RURAL SCHOOL BULLETINS FROM THE BUREAU OF EDUCATION

NOTE.—Orders for the purchase of Bulletins from the Bureau of Education should be addressed to the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C. Send remittance in currency or money order. Stamps are not accepted.

A Community Center. H. E. Jackson, 1918, No. 11, 10 cents.

Agriculture and Rural Life Day. E. C. Brooks, 1913, No. 43, 10 cents.

An Experimental Rural School at Winthrop College, S. C. Mrs. Hetty S. Browne, 1913, No. 42, 10 cents.

Educational Work of the Boy Scouts. L. W. Barclay, 1919, No. 24, 5 cents.

Girl Scouts as an Educational Force. J. Low, 1919, No. 33, 5 cents.

Important Features in Rural School Improvement. W. F. Hodges, 1914, No. 25, 10 cents.

Lessons in Civics for the Six Elementary Grades. H. M. Harris, 1920, No. 18, 15 cents.

Physical Growth and School Progress. B. T. Baldwin, 1914, No. 10, 25 cents.

Pine-Needle Basketry in Schools. W. C. A. Hammel, 1917, No. 3, 5 cents.

Short Courses in Home Making. C. A. Lyford, 1917, No. 23, 15 cents.

Teaching Language through Agriculture and Domestic Science. M. A. Leiper, 1912, No. 18, 5 cents.

The Reorganized School Playground. H. S. Curtis, 1912, No. 40, 10 cents.

The Preparation and Preservation of Vegetables. Mrs. H. W. Calvin and Carrie A. Lyford, 1917, No. 47, 5 cents.

The Eyesight of School Children, 1919, No. 65, 20 cents.

The Health of School Children. W. H. Heck, 1915, No. 4, 20 cents.

Training in Courtesy. Margaret S. McNaught, 1918, No. 54, 10 cents.

Training Little Children—Suggestions for Parents, 1919, No. 3, 15 cents.

Teacher's Leaflets

Civic Training through Service. A. W. Dunn, No. 8, 5 cents.
Education in Patriotism. No. 2, 5 cents.
Recreation and Rural Health. E. C. Lindeman, No. 7, 5 cents.
Rural School Playgrounds and Equipment. R. C. Richmond, No. 11, 5 cents.

Library Leaflets

(List of References.)

Consolidation of Schools. No. 11, February, 1920, 5 cents.
Home Education Circular No. 1. 1000 Good Books for Children, 5 cents.
Play and Playgrounds. No. 3, April, 1919, 5 cents.
Rural Schools and Rural School Teaching. June, 1914, 5 cents.
Stories for Young Children. No. 6, July, 1919, 5 cents.
Use of Pictures in Education. No. 13, December, 1920, 5 cents.

Health Education Series

- No. 1. Wanted, Teachers to Enlist for Child Health Service. 5 cents; additional copies, 1 cent each.
- No. 2. Diet for the School Child. 5 cents; additional copies, 2 cents each.
- No. 3. Summer Health and Play School. 5 cents; additional copies, 2 cents each.
- No. 4. Methods of Teaching Health. 5 cents; additional copies, 2 cents each.
- No. 5. Child Health Program. 5 cents; additional copies, 3 cents each.
- No. 6. Further Steps in Teaching Health. 5 cents; additional copies, 3 cents each.
- No. 7. The Lunch Hour at School. 5 cents; additional copies, 4 cents each.
- No. 8. Health Training for Teachers. 5 cents; additional copies, 3 cents each.
- No. 9. Your Opportunity in the Schools. 5 cents; additional copies, 3 cents each.

No. 10. Suggestions for a Program of Health Teaching in Elementary Schools. 10 cents; additional copies, 6 cents each. Classroom Weight Record. 5 cents; additional copies, 1 cent each.

United States School Garden Army Series

A Manual of School-supervised Gardening for the Western States. 10 cents.

Forty Lessons in Gardening for the Northeastern States. 5 cents; one thousand, \$42; each additional thousand, \$30.

Garden Manual for the Southwestern Region. 10 cents; one thousand, \$60; each additional thousand, \$40.

Lessons in Gardening for the Southwestern Region. 5 cents; one thousand, \$39; each additional thousand, \$26.

Lessons in School Supervised Gardening for the Southeastern States. 10 cents; one thousand, \$75; each additional thousand, \$45.

Lessons in Gardening for the Central States Region — Garden Manual No. 1. 5 cents; one thousand, \$30; each additional thousand, \$18.

Lessons in Gardening for the Central States Region — Garden Manual No. 2. 5 cents; one thousand, \$30; each additional thousand, \$18.

The Spring Manual of the United States School Garden Army. 5 cents; one thousand, \$21.50; each additional thousand, \$13.

V. BOOKS AND MAGAZINES FOR RURAL TEACHERS

Rural Education and School Management

BETTS AND HALL, *Better Rural Schools*. Bobbs-Merrill
CARNEY, *Country Life and the Country School*. Row, Peterson
COLGROVE, *The Teacher and the School*. Scribner
CUBBERLEY, *Rural Life and Education*. Houghton Mifflin
DEWEY, *New Schools for Old*. E. P. Dutton
FOGHT, *The Rural Teacher and his Work*. Macmillan
MACGARR, *The Rural Community*. Macmillan
PITTMAN, *Successful Teaching in Rural Schools*. American Book
WILKINSON, *Rural School Management*. Silver, Burdett

Special Methods

ALDINE LANGUAGE MANUAL FOR TEACHERS. Newson and Company
ANDRESS, *Health Education in Rural Schools*. Houghton Mifflin
DAVIS, *The Technique of Teaching*. Macmillan
DOBBS, *Illustrative Hand Work*. Macmillan
DODGE & KIRCHWEY, *The Teaching of Geography*. Rand, McNally
DYNES, *Socializing the Child*. Silver, Burdett
HODGE, *Nature Study and Life*. Ginn
JOHNSON, *The Teaching of History*. Macmillan
KENDALL AND MIRICK, *How to Teach the Fundamental Subjects and How to Teach the Special Subjects*. Houghton Mifflin
O'BRIEN, *Silent Reading*. Macmillan
PRYOR AND PITTMAN, *A Guide to the Teaching of Spelling*. Macmillan
THORNDIKE, *New Methods in Arithmetic*. Rand, McNally
THORNDIKE, *Psychology of Arithmetic*. Macmillan

General Method and Psychology

BAGLEY, *School Discipline*. Macmillan
BENNET, *School Efficiency*. Ginn
EARHART, *Types of Teaching*. Houghton Mifflin

MOREHOUSE, *The Discipline of the School*. D. C. Heath

STARK, *Every Teacher's Problems*. American Book

STRAYER, *Brief Course in the Teaching Process*. Macmillan

STRAYER AND NORSWORTHY, *How to Teach*. Macmillan

Teacher's Magazines

Popular Type:

Normal Instructor. F. A. Owen Co., Dansville, N. Y.

Primary Education and Popular Educator. Educational Publishing

Professional Type:

Journal of Educational Method. World Book

Journal of Rural Education. Teachers College, Columbia University, New York

VI. A FEW READABLE STORIES OF SPECIAL INTEREST TO TEACHERS

NOTE. — These books can all be ordered from such book-jobbers as A. C. McClurg and Company, Chicago, or the Baker and Taylor Company, New York, or direct from the publishers.

ANTIN, *The Promised Land*. Houghton Mifflin
ATKINSON, *Johnny Appleseed*. Grossett and Dunlap
CANFIELD, *Understood Betsy*. Holt
CONNOR, *Glengarry School Days*. Revell
DASKAM, *The Madness of Philip*. Appleton
EGGLESTON, *The Hoosier Schoolmaster*. Grossett and Dunlap
FURMAN, *Mothering on Perilous*. Macmillan
GARLAND, *A Son of the Middle Border*. Macmillan
GILLMORE, *Phoebe and Ernest*. Holt
GRAHAM, *The Golden Age*. John Lane
JOHNSON, *The Varmint*. Little, Brown
KELLY, *Little Citizens*. Doubleday, Page
MACLAREN, *Beside the Bonnie Brier Bush*. Dodd, Mead
MARTIN, *Emmy Lou*. Grossett and Dunlap
MONTGOMERY, *Anne of Green Gables*. Page
QUICK, *The Brown Mouse*. Bobbs-Merrill
RINEHART, *Bab, the Sub-Deb*. Doran.
SMITH, *The Evolution of Dodd*. Rand, McNally
TARKINGTON, *The Penrod Stories: Gentle Julia*, Doubleday, Page.
 Seventeen, Harper
WALPOLE, *Jeremy*. Doran
WELLS, *Joan and Peter*. Macmillan
WHITE, *The Court of Boyville*. Macmillan
WIGGIN, *Rebecca of Sunnybrook Farm, Timothy's Quest*. Grossett
 and Dunlap
WRAY, *Jean Mitchell's School*. Public School
YEOMAN, *Shackled Youth*. Atlantic Press

VII. SCHOOL EQUIPMENT

Every rural school should be provided with the following equipment for the teacher's use:

- Class record book
- Eyelet punch
- Hectograph and hectograph ink
- Lettering pens
- Mounts for pictures
- Oak tag for drill cards, etc.
- Paper cutter
- Printing outfit

This equipment and the commercial equipment needed for pupils' use can be procured from any good school supply house. A few of the best known in various sections of the country follow:

1. A. Flanagan Company, Chicago.
2. Educational Supply Company, Painesville, Ohio
3. Harter School Supply Company, Cleveland, Ohio
4. J. S. Latta, Inc., Box 150, Cedar Falls, Iowa
5. Milton Bradley Company, New York or Philadelphia
6. Northwestern School Supply Company, Minneapolis, Minn.
7. Standard School Supply Company, 204 Walnut Street, St. Louis, Missouri

For a further listing of supplies, see bulletins, *Educative Equipment for Rural Schools* by Fannie W. Dunn, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, price 25 cents, and *Modern Equipment for One-Teacher Schools* by Maud C. Newberry, *Rural School Leaflet No. 3*, Bureau of Education, Dept. of Interior, Washington, D. C.

VIII. PICTURES

Visual education is growing in favor. Most rural schools need more pictures for interest, information, and the development of artistic appreciation. The following companies furnish pictures of various types. Catalogues should be secured and studied before pictures are ordered.

Brown, Geo. P. & Co., 38 Lovett St., Beverley, Mass.

Bureau of University Travel, Trinity Place, Boston, Mass.

Cosmos Pictures, 119 West 25th St., New York City

Elson Prints, Belmont, Mass.

Elson Picture Folders, Elson Art Publication Co., Boston

Hine Photo Co., 27 Grant Ave., Yonkers, N. Y.

Keystone View Co. (stereoscopes and views), Meadville, Pa.

National Geographic Society, Washington, D. C.

Perry Picture Co., Malden, Mass.

One Hundred Graded Pictures (listed for schools), State Normal,
Ypsilanti, Michigan

Turner, Horace K. Co., Boston, Mass.

University Prints, 12 Boyd St., Newton, Mass.

IX. FREE EDUCATIONAL EXHIBITS

Free educational exhibits may be obtained from the following companies:

Asbestos, H. W. Johns, Manville Co., Madison Ave. and 41st St., N. Y., or Michigan Ave. and 18th St., Chicago, Ill.

Cocoa, Hershey Chocolate Co., Hershey, Pa.; and Walter M. Lowney Co., 427 Commercial St., Boston

Coffee, Hill Bros., 175 Fremont St., San Francisco. (Use school letter head when writing)

Corn Flakes, Kellogg Corn Flake Co., Battle Creek, Michigan

Flour, Pillsbury Flour Mills Co., Minneapolis, Minn. (School must pay postage or express.) Washburn-Crosby Co., Minneapolis

Iron and Steel, Illinois Steel Co., S. Chicago, Ill. (School must pay transportation)

Peanut Butter, Beech Nut Packing Co., Canajoharie, N. Y.

Pencils, Eberhard Faber, 37 Greenpoint Ave., Brooklyn, N. Y., and Joseph Dixon Crucible Co., Jersey City, N. J.

Pens, Esterbrook Steel Pen Mfg. Co., Camden, N. J., and Spencerian Pen Co., 349 Broadway, N. Y.

Rubber, Everhard Faber, 37 Greenpoint Ave., Brooklyn, N. Y., and L. E. Waterman Co., 191 Broadway, N. Y.

Shot Shell, etc., Remington Arms Union, Woolworth Bldg., N. Y.

Soap, Larkin Co., Buffalo, N. Y.

X. SOME VALUABLE COURSES OF STUDY FOR RURAL TEACHERS

1. *Baltimore County Course of Study*. Warwick and York, 10 East Center Street, Baltimore, Md. Price, \$3.00 plus 15c postage. An excellent course. Very detailed and especially helpful on project organization.
2. *Illinois State Course of Study*. Order from the C. W. Parker Publishing Co., Taylorville, Ill. Price, 50c. Contains good reference lists and nature study outlines.
3. *McDonald County Course of Study for Rural Schools*. Order of the author, Supt. Pryor M. Collings, Pineville, Mo. Exceptionally good and thoroughly modern in spirit and method.
4. *Minnesota Course of Study and Manual for Teachers*. Order from the Jones and Kroeger Co., Winona, Minn. Price, 75c. Suggestions in the Manual are extremely helpful.
5. *Montana State Course of Study*. Department of Education, Helena, Mont. Very definite, practical and helpful for beginning rural teachers.
6. *New Jersey State Course of Study*. Department of Education, Trenton, N. J. Especially good on physical education, history and civics, and arithmetic. Each subject is bound separately.
7. *The Speyer School Curriculum*. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, N. Y. Price, 75c. Particularly helpful on history, industrial arts, geography, and story telling.
8. *Wisconsin State Manual and Elementary Course of Study*. Department of Education, Madison. Especially helpful on reading.

XI. SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR ONE-TEACHER RURAL SCHOOLS

Program Number I. From Kent County, Delaware

This program has been found usable with modifications in eastern Kent County, Delaware. *Italicized* items denote the recitation periods.

| Time | Group C (Grades I, II & III) | Group B (Grades IV & V) | Group A (Grades VI & VII) |
|--|---|--|---|
| 9:00- 9:45 | Opening exercises for all, Singing, Story, Quotations, Current Events, etc. | | |
| 9:10- 9:45 | Socialized Reading | <i>Arith. 5 min. Drill</i> <i>15 min. help and instruction</i> <i>15 min. desk work</i> | <i>Arith. 5 min. Drill</i> <i>15 min. desk work</i> <i>15 min. help and instruction</i> |
| 9:45-10:05 | <i>Reading</i> 5 min. help, 5 min. instruction for each class | Grade IV, Silent Reading Grade V, Prep. Geog. | Silent Reading |
| 10:05-10:20 | Grade I. No. desk work Grades II & III, Rev. Spelling | Grade V, Geog. Grade IV, Hist. Stories | Prep. History & Civics |
| 10:20-10:35 | RECESS FOR ALL — SUPERVISED PLAY | | |
| 10:35-10:45 | <i>Gr. I, Oral Reading</i> <i>Gr. II & III,</i> No. desk work | Optional | Optional |
| 10:45-11:00 | <i>Gr. II & III, Numbers</i> | Prep. Spelling | Prep. Spelling |
| 11:00-11:05 | PHYSICAL EDUCATION FOR ALL, WINDOWS OPEN | | |
| 11:05-11:30 | <i>Spelling</i> <i>5 min. instruction</i> <i>10 min. dictation</i> <i>5 min. sentences</i> <i>5 min. prep. penmanship</i> | <i>Spelling</i> <i>Sentences</i> <i>Dictation</i> <i>Instruction</i> Correct Group C | <i>Spelling</i> <i>Sentences</i> <i>Dictation</i> Correct Groups A & B Instruction |
| 11:30-11:40 | PENMANSHIP FOR ENTIRE SCHOOL | | |
| 11:40-12:00 | Free Play | Library Period | <i>Hist., Civics and Current Events</i> |
| 12:00- 1:00 | 5 min. prep. for lunch, 25 min. lunch, 15 min. put room in order, 15 min. play. | | |
| 1:00- 1:30 | Alternating period, Mon., Music, Tues., Assembly, etc. | | |
| 1:30- 1:50 | <i>Gr. II & III, Reading</i> <i>Gr. I, Free period</i> | <i>Gr. IV, Construction</i> <i>Gr. V, Prep. History</i> | Prep. Geog. |
| 1:50- 2:10 | Handwork | <i>History & Oral Reading</i> | Prep. Geog. or Construction |
| 2:10- 2:30 | Sandtable | <i>Gr. V, Construction</i> <i>Gr. IV, Free Period</i> | Geog. (Mon., Hygiene) |
| 2:30- 2:45 | Physical Education, Entire School, on Playground | | |
| 2:45- 3:10 | English | Prep. English | Prep. English |
| 3:10- 3:35 | Dismiss | English | Prep. English |
| 3:35- 4:00 (Fri. Household Arts & Man. Tr.) | | Library or Cons. | English |

Program Number II. From Hunterdon County, New Jersey

The following program is the product of several years' experience on the part of Miss Maude C. Newbury, formerly Helping Teacher in Hunterdon County, New Jersey, but now a rural assistant in the Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C. This schedule is made for four groups (A — B — C — D) and the recitations are indicated by italic type.

| | D | C | B | A | |
|-------------|--|---------------------------------|---|---|--|
| 9:00—9:15 | MORNING EXERCISES | | | | |
| 9:17—9:32 | <i>Reading and Language (5)</i> | Study Reading | Study (5) | Study (5) | |
| 9:34—9:49 | Reading Seat Work | <i>Reading and Language (5)</i> | Arithmetic | Arithmetic | |
| 9:50—9:53 | THREE-MINUTE DRILL | | | | |
| 9:55—10:10 | Hand-work | Hand-work | <i>Arithmetic (3)</i> <i>Tuesday 15 min.</i> <i>Thursday (15)</i> <i>Fri. (35)</i> | Study Arithmetic (5) | <i>Hygiene & Manners for Whole School Monday for 35 min.</i> |
| 10:12—10:32 | | | Study Geography (3) Study English (2) | <i>Arithmetic (3)</i> <i>Tuesday (15 min.)</i> <i>Wed. (35)</i> <i>Thurs. (15)</i> | |
| 10:34—10:44 | GYMNASTICS | | | | |
| 10:44—10:54 | RECESS | | | | |
| 10:56—11:11 | <i>Phonics (2)</i> <i>Story Period (1)</i> <i>C Arithmetic (2)</i> | | Study Geography (3) Study English (2) | Study History (3) | |
| 11:13—11:33 | Seat Work in Phonics | Seat Work in Arithmetic | <i>Geography (3)</i> <i>M., W., T. English (2)</i> <i>Tues. & F.</i> | Study English (2) | |
| 11:34—11:59 | Excused | | | <i>History (3)</i> <i>M. W. Th.; English (2)</i> <i>Tues. & F.</i> | |

Program Number II—Continued

| D | C | B | A |
|-------------|--|---|--|
| 12:00- 1:00 | <i>NOON INTERMISSION</i> | | |
| 1:02- 1:17 | <i>Reading and Language (5)</i> | Study Reading | Study Reading (3) Library Period (2) |
| 1:19- 1:34 | Reading Seat Work | <i>Reading and Language (5)</i> | Free Period (2) |
| 1:36- 1:51 | | <i>Writing (3)</i> | <i>Writing (3)</i> Study Reading (2) |
| 1:53- 1:56 | <i>SETTING-UP EXERCISES</i> | | |
| 1:57- 2:11 | <i>Language (2)</i> Handwork (3) | Spelling (1) Study History (3) | Spelling (2) Study Reading (2) Free Period (1) |
| 2:13- 2:33 | Handwork (5) | <i>Reading (3)</i> Study History (2) | <i>Reading (3)</i> Study Geography (3) |
| 2:35- 2:45 | <i>ORGANIZED GAMES, RHYTHMIC PLAYS</i> | | |
| 2:45- 2:55 | <i>RECESS</i> | | |
| 2:57- 3:17 | <i>Excused or Play</i> | <i>History (3)</i> <i>M. T. T.</i> <i>English (1) W</i> <i>Drawing F.</i> | <i>English (1) W</i> <i>Drawing (1) F.</i> <i>Study Geography (3)</i> |
| 3:18- 3:38 | | | <i>Geography M. T. Th.</i> <i>English (1) W.</i> <i>Drawing (1) F.</i> |
| 3:39- 3:59 | | <i>Current Events (1)</i> <i>Spelling (1)</i> <i>Civics (1)</i> <i>English (1)</i> <i>Drawing (1)</i> | <i>60 min. periods in English for A & B Classes on Wednesday</i> <i>60 min. period in Drawing on Friday</i> |

Italics denote class periods; roman denotes study or hand-work periods.

Program Number III. From the Experimental Rural School of Teachers College, Columbia University, New York

The program submitted herewith was worked out by Dr. Fannie W. Dunn of Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, and has been used in the Experimental Rural School of this institution. It also provides for four groups and offers unusually long recitation periods.

| Hour | Beginners | Second and Third Year | Fourth and Fifth Year | Sixth, Seventh and Eighth Year | Length Period |
|-------|--|-----------------------|----------------------------|--------------------------------|---------------|
| | D | C | B | A | |
| 9:00 | Opening Exercises — General Period | | | | |
| 9:20 | Reading & Phonics | | | | 20 |
| 9:40 | | Reading & Language | | | 20 |
| 10:00 | | | Eng. & Spell. | Eng. & Spell. | 30 |
| 10:30 | Morning Recess Period | | | | |
| 10:45 | Industrial Arts (3-4 days) | | Industrial Arts (1-2 days) | | 30 |
| 11:15 | Arithmetic | Arithmetic | | | 20 |
| 11:35 | | | Arithmetic | Arithmetic | 25 |
| 12:00 | Noon Recess Hour | | | | |
| 1:00 | Read. & Lang. | | | | 15 |
| 1:15 | | Read. & Lang. | | | 15 |
| 1:30 | | | Geog. & Hist. | | 30 |
| 2:00 | | | | Geog. & Hist. | 30 |
| 2:30 | Afternoon Recess Period | | | | |
| 2:45 | | Reading | | Reading | 30 |
| 3:15 | General Period — Nature Study, Agriculture, Hygiene, Drawing, Music. | | | | |

NOTE: — Where two subjects are listed in the same hour, with a line between, they may be taken alternately, together, or dividing the time.

Program Number IV. From the Iowa State Teachers College, Cedar Falls

The program printed on pages 286-287 together with the following Principles and Notes is reproduced with permission from a bulletin on the organization and classification of one-teacher schools from the Extension Division of the Iowa State Teachers College at Cedar Falls. It represents the combined judgment of a group of specialists in rural education, whose opportunities for studying the problem of the one-teacher school have been exceedingly intimate, and whose experience and contact with this type of school cover a number of years. The bulletin was prepared for the use of Iowa teachers, and the program is therefore conditioned by the Iowa law governing the teaching of elementary school subjects.

Principles Entering Into the Making of a Daily Program for a One-Teacher School**Your Program Should —**

1. Fit your school.
2. Give place for every one of the subjects required to be taught.
3. Put the more important subjects in the better part of the day.
4. Adjust the length of the recitation periods to the age of the pupils and the nature of the subject.
5. Provide for study periods as well as recitations.
6. Provide wherever possible for a study period in a subject immediately following the recitation in this subject.
7. Give opportunity if possible for individual help of pupils.
8. Provide for variety of occupation, especially for younger pupils.
9. Furnish intervals for play and recreation.
10. Offer definite periods for the use of the library.
11. Be followed conscientiously.

Notes on the Model Program

Short, spirited opening exercises should be planned for each morning in order to start the day in a satisfactory manner.

The plan of setting apart definite portions of the day for the teaching of Reading, Arithmetic and Language make possible such readjustments of the work from day to day as may best serve the needs and interests of the pupils.

No suggestion made here is more fundamentally important than that supervised play take the place of the ordinary recess and that the supervised noon lunch and supervised play occupy the noon hour.

Iowa Program for One-Teacher Schools
Forenoon

| Time | Min. | Recitations | | | | Study and Occupations | | | | A Div. |
|---------------------|------|----------------------|------------|------------|------------|-----------------------|------------|---------|---------|--|
| | | Classes | E Div. | D Div. | C Div. | B Div. | | | | |
| Opening Exercises | | | | | | | | | | |
| 9:00 | 5 | | | | | | | | | |
| 9:05 | 10 | E Reading | | | Reading | | Reading | | Reading | Civics or Agriculture |
| 9:15 | 10 | D Reading | Reading | | | Reading | | Reading | | Civics or Agriculture |
| 9:25 | 15 | C Reading | Handwork | Reading | | | Reading | | | |
| 9:40 | 15 | B Reading | Play | Play | | Reading | | | Reading | |
| 9:55 | 15 | A Reading | Board Work | Board Work | Board Work | Library | | | Reading | |
| 10:10 | 5 | E Phonics | | Phonics | Library | Library | Library | | | Library |
| 10:15 | 5 | D Phonics | Play | | Library | Library | Library | | | Library |
| 10:20 | 15 | Recess | | | | | | | | Supervised Play for all Divisions |
| 10:35 | 10 | E Numbers | | Numbers | Arithmetic | | Arithmetic | | | Library |
| 10:45 | 10 | D Numbers | Numbers | | Arithmetic | | Arithmetic | | | Arithmetic |
| 10:55 | 15 | C Arithmetic | Handwork | Numbers | | | Arithmetic | | | Arithmetic |
| 11:10 | 15 | B Arithmetic | Play | Play | Arithmetic | | Arithmetic | | | Arithmetic |
| 11:25 | 20 | A Arithmetic | Drawing | Drawing | Drawing | Drawing | | | | |
| 11:45 | 15 | Writing | | | | | | | | All Divisions Mondays, Wednesdays, Fridays |
| | | Drawing and Handwork | | | | | | | | All Divisions Tuesdays, Thursdays |
| 12:00 to 1:00 | | | | | | | | | | Supervised Lunch and Supervised Play |

APPENDIX

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Afternoon

| Time | Min. | Classes | E Div. | | D Div. | | C Div. | | B Div. | | A Div. | |
|------|------|-----------------------------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|----------------|----------------|---------------|---------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| | | | Reading | Reading | Reading | Reading | Handwork | Handwork | Play | Play | Spelling | Spelling |
| 1:00 | 10 | E Reading | | | | | Geog. or Hist. | Geog. or Hist. | | | Geog. or Hist. | Geog. or Hist. |
| 1:10 | 10 | D Reading | | | | | Geog. or Hist. | Geog. or Hist. | | | Geog. or Hist. | Geog. or Hist. |
| 1:20 | 10 | C Geog. or Hist. | | | | | Geog. or Hist. | Geog. or Hist. | | | Geog. or Hist. | Geog. or Hist. |
| 1:30 | 10 | B Geog. or Hist. | | | | | Geog. or Hist. | Geog. or Hist. | | | Geog. or Hist. | Geog. or Hist. |
| 1:40 | 15 | A Geog. or Hist. | | | | | Geog. or Hist. | Geog. or Hist. | | | Geog. or Hist. | Geog. or Hist. |
| 1:55 | 10 | Music | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2:05 | 10 | C Spelling | Board Work | Board Work | Board Work | Board Work | Language | Language | Spelling | Spelling | Spelling | Spelling |
| 2:15 | 10 | B & A Spelling | Board Work | Board Work | Board Work | Board Work | Language | Language | Spelling | Spelling | Spelling | Spelling |
| 2:25 | 15 | Recess | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2:40 | 15 | E, D & C General Lessons | Sandtable | Sandtable | Sandtable | Sandtable | Language | Language | Language | Language | Gram. or Agri. | Gram. or Agri. |
| 2:55 | 10 | A Grammar or Agriculture | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3:05 | 10 | B Language or Agriculture | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3:15 | 10 | C Language Copying | | | | | Language | Language | Language | Language | Gram. or Agri. | Gram. or Agri. |
| 3:25 | 10 | E & D Language | | | | | | | | | Civ. or Man. Tr. or Dom. Sci. | Civ. or Man. Tr. or Dom. Sci. |
| 3:35 | 10 | B Civics or Man. Tr. or Dom. Sci. | Picture Study | Picture Study | Picture Study | Picture Study | Handwork | Handwork | Handwork | Handwork | Civics | Civics |
| 3:45 | 15 | A Civics or Man. Tr. or Dom. Sci. | Play | Play | Play | Play | Picture Study | Picture Study | Picture Study | Picture Study | Civics | Civics |

All Divisions

Supervised Play for all Divisions

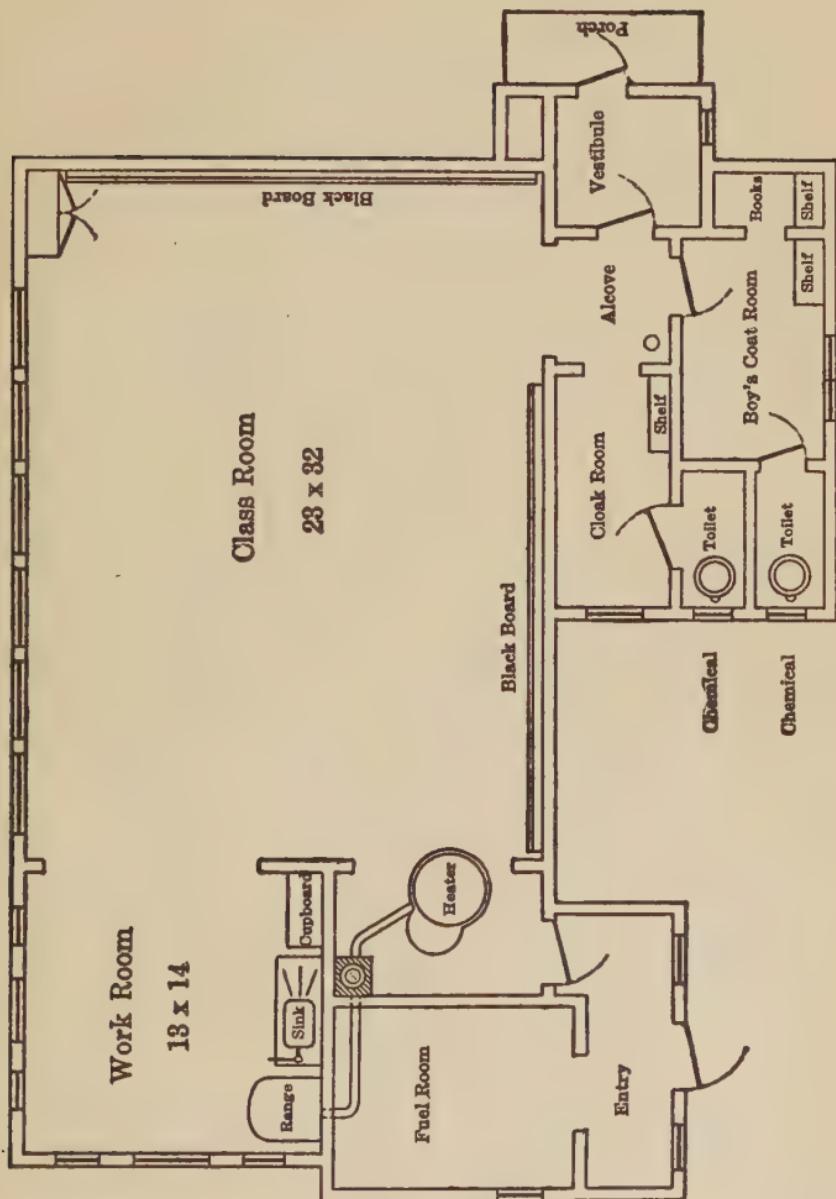
XII. A MODERN ONE-TEACHER SCHOOL BUILDING

A glance at the plan given on page 289 will show many of the modern features of this workable one-teacher school building.

The large classroom, adequately lighted from the left of the pupils, contains Moulthrop desks for the pupils, a comfortable chair and roomy desk for the teacher, a built-in bookcase, portable chairs for class use, a graphonola, sand-table, hanging lamps, and a modern jacketed stove.

The alcove room is the workroom, and contains the hot lunch outfit, a cooking stove, sink, and built-in cupboard. A large table is used at various times for reading, sewing, and as a dining table.

The chemical toilets are entered from the cloak rooms. The book closet, shelves for lunches, and drinking fountains are features worth noting. This ample closet provision is as much appreciated by the average teacher as by the housekeeper, and aids greatly in keeping the schoolroom neat and orderly.



ONE-TEACHER SCHOOL, A DELAWARE PLAN

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